The Nation.

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The Week.

TAKING up free silver to save protection, as the Republican Senators from New England and Pennsylvania now propose to do, ought to open eyes that have remained blind to all the other demonstrations of the reckless and unscrupulous nature of the protective system when driven into a corner. We have already had the pension squandering and corruption to avoid reducing tariff taxes; we have seen the sugar bounty and the silver purchases bartered for votes for protective duties; and now, it appears, we are about to see 100 per cent. protection joining fortunes with a fifty-cent dollar. On their part, Messrs. Lodge, Hoar, Gallinger, Reed, Cameron, and Quay have shown their hands, and Senator Pettigrew of South Dakota showed his in his speech of May 29. He laid down the platform upon which "we of the West" are standing. It is the platform of protection and free coinage of silver. "Upon this platform, and on this alone," said the South Dakota Senator, "we can continue to act with New England." And he added significantly: "I feel sure, from my conversation with New England's leading men, they are getting ready to join us." If this is not last-ditch protectionism, it is hard to say what would be. Our finances may be ruined and our currency debased and our commerce destroyed, but if protection can be "saved," all will be well. The virtuous New England Senators who are "getting ready" to go in for that, have no reason to assume a "holier-than-thou" air in the presence of Coxeyites.

An encouraging indication of the temper of the Democratic members of the House towards the Brice-Gorman tariff bill, similar to that already given by Mr. Wilson, appears in the letter which Congressman Tarsney of Indiana has addressed to Senator Faulkner. Mr. Tarsney says he declines to send to the Democratic newspapers in his district the Senate circular purporting to give a tabulated statement of comparative rates of the Wilson bill and the Brice-Gorman bill, because of its "misleading character"; and after exposing once more the cheap trickery behind that statement, he adds: "I think a less misleading, a more candid and fair statement to give out for publication would be that under the McKinley law the people are taxed annually $198,000,000; under the Senate bill it is proposed to tax them $175,000,000, and under the House bill $125,000,000—which shows a difference of something more than 1.27 per cent." Every additional Democratic protest of this kind will be of great public service in making possible the undoing of the Brice-Gorman work when the bill gets into conference committee. If the Democrats of the House will insist upon the passage of the bill substantially as it passed the House, they will have the support of the overwhelming majority of their own party, and of the country as well, for the Brice-Gorman business has no support anywhere outside high protection circles, and it will be extremely difficult for the Democrats of the Senate to stand by their bill if by so doing they defeat all action whatever.

To the vast majority of the women of America the cloak is an article of prime necessity as a protection against weather, the price of which they have to weigh with great anxiety. Its fashion and material constitute one of the few luxuries of the poor. One would think, therefore, that anybody raised above the savage state would try to make cloaks so cheap that every woman would find it easy to get a good one. The protectionist theory, however, as propounded by ex-President Harrison and the thoughtful Senator Lodge, is that it is bad for poor girls to have cheap cloaks, that it makes them feel cheap, and that the more of their scanty wages you take for a cloak, the better they are off. Accordingly some of the Cleveland tailors wrote to the Hon. Tom Johnson, begging him to make cloaks dearer by putting on them, besides the duty of 45 per cent. ad valorem, an additional specific duty of 49½ cents per pound, so as to make the poor sewing-girl, as he remarks, pay as much duty on her shoddy cloak as Mrs. Astor on her cloak of velvet, and drawing his attention to the horrible state of things in Berlin, where a poor woman can get a cloak for $1.20. The way the Hon. Tom takes up the cudgels for the poor women, and jumps on the greedy tailors, is delightful reading. If the poor of the country had many such champions in Congress, there would be much fewer Coxeyites and Populists, and far less marching on Washington.

Secretary Carlisle made short work on Thursday of the sensational story that he had called upon the Democratic members of the Senate finance committee with a sugar schedule which he insisted must be put into the pending tariff bill, because such terms had been promised the Sugar Trust in return for a liberal contribution to the Democratic campaign fund in 1892. He swore that he made no such statement, and he is a man whose word is to be believed. Moreover, it came out that, while he did present a draft of a proposed schedule in response to a suggestion from the Democratic members of the committee, this draft was not accepted. Instead of the schedule which is now in the bill being dictated by the Sugar Trust through the secretary of the treasury, as was charged, Mr. Carlisle presented no demand of the Trust, and his own recommendations were not adopted without change by the committee. There is thus nothing left of the original charge. As for the assumed impropriety of such recommendations by the head of the Treasury Department, only the most ignorant could be deceived by such a pretence. It has always been the practice for Senators and Representatives to invite his suggestions and welcome his advice as to the framing of a tariff bill. It is precisely because he is theoretically qualified to give advice and make suggestions of value when financial measures are under consideration by Congress, that a man is appointed secretary of the treasury. Under a better system he would probably draft all financial measures in the first instance.

The sensation-mongers are left in a most humiliating plight by the developments since the investigation began. When they printed their wild stories, they professed to be burning with impatience to be called before some tribunal and allowed to free their minds. "If the newspaper men are given a chance to tell all they know, there will be some interesting developments," one of them wrote to his newspaper. But when he got the chance, he was unwilling to tell anything which would be of service to the investigators, and took refuge in the plea of "professional honor." The incident illustrates the growing sense of irresponsibility among writers for the press. Here is a case where a man whose personal integrity has never been impugned was charged with the baseness of acting as go-between in a bargain between men seeking legislation in their own interests and the Senators in charge of a bill affecting those interests, and telling his fellow-partisans that they must make such and such a schedule in return for so much cash paid into the party treasury. There proves to be not a word of truth in it. But the man who wrote the story will not tell where he got it, and many newspapers profess to regard it as entirely proper for a writer to make such a charge, and then take refuge in the plea that he cannot expose the liar because it would be "a breach of professional confidence." This seems an odd way of fulfilling "the mission of the press."

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The Hawaiian incident may probably be considered as closed with the all but unanimous adoption by the Senate on Thursday of a resolution declaring that the people of the Hawaiian Islands ought to establish and maintain their own form of government, that the United States ought not to interfere, and that the intervention of any other government would be regarded as unfriendly to this country. If such a resolution had only been adopted two years ago, and the Harrison administration had lived up to it, we should have been spared the humiliating history of the attempt to rush through an annexation scheme which was not favored by the people either of the Hawaiian Islands or of the United States. This country had a narrow escape from having these islands made part of the United States before people generally knew what was going on, and it did not escape the reproach of having interfered unjustifiably in the affairs of a Power with which it was at peace and of having overthrown the existing government. The best we can do now is to resolve that this sort of thing shall not happen again.

The payment by James Gordon Bennett of over $6,000 damages the other day to Miss Kinney, a country clergyman's daughter, about whom the *Herald* printed an atrocious libel, and who sued it in the United States Court, throws light on several things. The libel was a brutal attack on Miss Kinney's character, telegraphed from the country by some malicious person and printed without the least inquiry. When called on to retract, the *Herald* retracted by repeating the libel, with the word "not" inserted—that is, by saying that Miss Kinney did not do so and so, thus clearly aggravating the original offence. Now this case, taken in connection with Mr. Van Ingen's suits against the *Mail and Express* and the *Recorder*, shows clearly that if libels are not punished or repressed, it is the fault of the public. Fourteen thousand dollars were recovered last year for one scandal from three other city newspapers. It is quite plain that anybody who suffers from a scandalous press has only to go into court to get satisfaction, for the juries are most sympathetic. Nearly every juryman has suffered, or has friends who have suffered, from blackguard "journalism," and is ready in a good case to make the offender smart. This Kinney suit shows also why the *Herald* was so eager last winter for a change in the law which should compel libelled people to prove malice in order to recover damages. Miss Kinney, of course, could not prove malice; nobody can prove malice—it is unprovable; it has to be a legal presumption. Miss Kinney has also sued the *Police Gazette*, but she cannot lay hold of a tithe of the scandal-mongers all over the country who circulated the libel. But these suits are full of hope and encouragement for a long-suffering people.

The attempt of the relatives of the Italians who were killed in New Orleans in the assault in the parish prison in 1891, to recover damages for their death, has been finally defeated in the Circuit Court of Appeals. The opinion of the court was delivered by Judge Pardee, the other two judges concurring. The damages were laid at $30,000. The court decided that, under the treaty of 1871 with Italy, Italians resident in this country are entitled to exactly the same sort of legal protection as citizens, and no more; that there is no common-law right to sue a State or city for damages for the loss of either life or property through riots; that for such a right to exist it must be created by statute; that a statute makes the city of New Orleans liable for damage done by mobs to property, but makes no mention of municipal liability for the loss of life; that, therefore, this liability does not exist, and, horrible as the crime was, there is no remedy for it in a civil action. This justifies Mr. Blaine's position when the offence occurred—that the Italians in New Orleans were entitled to all the legal protection due to citizens, but no more, and therefore could not properly invoke federal interference in their behalf—a position which we then maintained was impregnable. It is, however, a position which doubtless makes the rôle of the United States a very embarrassing one when foreigners are the victims of violence punishable only by State law. If the State does not punish it, the United States can really do nothing for the injured persons beyond giving them a solatium in money, which is a great discredit to the country. We believe it has been held that Congress has power to take cognizance of such offences, and if it has, it ought to provide for its exercise by legislation. Our States are at present the only civilized communities in the world which can deny protection to the life and property of foreigners with perfect impunity, for the United States protects them from chastisement.

The boldest and most jocose exercise of judicial authority probably ever made was the injunction forbidding the Constitutional Convention to pass on the qualifications of its own members. Judge Clute's injunction forbidding the clerk of the State Senate to call the roll was a trifle compared to it. If it were good law, it would authorize any one of our forty-six judges of the Supreme Court to arrest the proceedings of the highest sort of assembly known to civilized man for an indefinite period. The case would, of course, be different if a legislator's title to his seat were now subject to judicial decision, as in England. But no such practice is known in the United States. In both Congress and the State legislatures the members whose seats are not contested decide without appeal on the claims of those whose seats are contested. If the Constitutional Convention were subject to a different rule, it would really place it lower than the bodies which it creates and whose action it controls. The committee disposed of the injunction in a very calm and dignified way, by deciding to take no notice of it; but the issue of such writs always helps to bring the courts into a contempt which cannot be punished. It makes a judge talked of, but does not add to his fame.

There is no doubt whatever that the testimony which Mr. Goff is bringing out through the Senate investigating committee is making a profound impression upon the public. Neither is there any doubt that it is very generally accepted as truthful. That it will be met with denials by most of the persons implicated is expected, but in their denials the police officials will suffer under the disadvantage of popular distrust of many years' standing. That blackmail has been levied upon both crime and liquor in this city for many years is a matter of general belief, and the evidence that it is levied is taken as a matter of course and accepted on its face as truthful. That adduced on Monday, like what preceded it on Friday, bears many marks of truthfulness, and is supported by corroborative evidence which sustains its general character. It is noticeable that all the witnesses testify to a uniform rate of taxation—$500 as an "initiation fee," and $50 a month as regular tariff, with something thrown in for the "ward man." The ward man, it should be borne in mind, is the ward detective who is supposed to be giving the police the most expert kind of aid in ferreting out crime. That he should be used so uniformly as the collector of blackmail, gives us a startling picture of the demoralization which the business has caused in the force.

Forty years ago, Bastiat propounded the thesis that a classical education at a French college predisposed a man to socialism; and as a matter of fact the leaders in the socialistic movement in France, and in the Paris Commune, have been largely college graduates who had failed in life. M. Léon Say took the matter up at a recent meeting of the Political Economy Society in Paris, and seemed to agree with Bastiat; and to the influence of the universities in making socialists he added that of the Germans. While the Germans

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were absorbed in philosophy, they made no progress, and as soon as they dropped philosophy and took to arms they founded the empire and conquered France. The French then thought it was the philosophy which had beaten them, and, since the war, have taken it up. M. Léon Say would, therefore, suppress the "baccalauréat"—the A. B. degree—and reform the philosophic instruction in the university. He would banish from the French horizon "the love of mystic poetry which is now all the rage, and which, by a natural reaction against vulgar and unclean realism, is more and more laying hold of the minds of the young men." "To give things their real value, and see them exactly as they are, is," he said, "the highest duty of citizenship." "But how," he asked, "can we hope that the love of reality and contempt for chimeras will penetrate young minds if philosophers continue to nourish them with metaphysical illusions, by fixing their view obstinately on ideal states of society as far as possible removed from this earth? Is it not sad to think that it is now the fashion to confide chairs of political economy to metaphysicians, with the view, doubtless laudable, of having them learn political economy by teaching it? Political economy is the servant of philosophy, perhaps because common sense ought to be the servant of mystical speculation."

We happen to have lying before us, as we read these observations of M. Léon Say, a striking illustration of the way in which metaphysics creeps into political economy, in the shape of a paper, on the "Austrian Theory of Value," by our excellent friend Prof. Macvane of Harvard. Economically and humanly speaking, cost is what a man pays for a thing when he buys it. To the manufacturer of the finished article, the cost is what he has paid for his raw materials and the labor he has employed. On this he bases his profit. This is as far as an economist can or ought to go. Common sense stops him "right here," as the orators say. But here the metaphysician arrives on the scene and says: "This is only the employer's way of looking at the matter." "The economic view of cost" "must take the broadly human point of view, by ignoring the division of men into employers and laborers, and making cost of production a question of the whole exertion or sacrifice men have to undergo in order to produce the various commodities they need." With this Prof. Macvane tackles the "Austrian School," and he and Prof. Boehm-Bawerk and Prof. von Wieser have a lively tussle over the nature and extent of "this exertion or sacrifice," about which, of course, one knows just as much as the other, and about which none of them can offer anything but a speculative opinion. Hearing the noise, Marx, Bebel, Guesde, and Jaurès and the Fabians, arrive promptly on the scene, followed by Vaillant and Henry, and shout, "What is this we hear about 'the broadly human point of view' and 'exertion and sacrifice'? That is our affair; we know all about that; what can *you* know, black-coated *canaille?* What you need is a good bomb under your chair."

Every French ministry that comes in pours a little oil on the socialistic flame. M. Dupuy's exposition of his policy has the usual vague and most mischievous promise "to push forward democratic measures, and especially to give attention to the bills before the committees relating to social problems and workingmen's pensions, with the object of improving the condition of workingmen in town and country." We need hardly say that this is pure buncombe. There are no measures before the committees for the permanent improvement of the workingmen either in town or in country. They are all measures intended either to induce the workingmen to work less, and so diminish production, or to give them money out of the taxes paid in part by their own earnings. M. Dupuy's observation that "workingmen have no need to resort to revolution to improve their lot" will undoubtedly be taken by them to mean that their objects would justify revolution if legislation was not to be had. We do not need now to say that this sort of talk by men in power in all the leading countries of the world has at last begun to alarm capitalists, and is undoubtedly having its effect in delaying the revival of business. The socialistic leanings of the Liberal party in England have been sensibly felt in "the City," and there is no good ground for supposing that the Tories would be much safer, and the effect of "social reforms" on French finances is becoming increasingly threatening.

The *concours* by means of which it was hoped that a new and better series of postage-stamps might be obtained for France has just ended in complete failure. Something like 500 designs were sent in, none of which was good enough to be of use. Half-a-dozen were passable, others were caricatures, others still unintentionally absurd and grotesque; but the mass was simply ugly and stupid. Allegorical figures, of course, abounded, and the unhappy republic was served up *à toutes sauces.* Phrygian caps, Revolutionary cocked-hats, cockades, fasces, Gallic cocks, lions, and all the rest of the symbolic menagerie, swarmed. Realism had its triumphs, too: Gen. Hoche shook hands with Joan of Arc over the map of France; M. Carnot, with his habitual "war paint" on, stood with his hand on the shoulder of a young woman of very agreeable appearance, who sat at a table on which there was a telegraphic apparatus. The tricolor waved over them. As was natural and proper, the jury rejected the whole of the designs, though awarding gratuities of consolation to four or five of the competitors. Why such a competition as this should be thought more democratic than the obvious and sensible plan of giving a commission to a competent artist, it would be hard to say. There would seem to be no more danger of favoritism or of jobbing in one case than in the other. France has designers and medallists equal to any in the world. A stamp designed by Chaplain or by Roty, men who are first in their art, could not lack distinction. But prejudice in France still calls for competitions, as if the republic were somehow made safer by them, even at the expense of becoming in some ways uglier and less artistic; for a choice where, as in France, the best men will not compete, is certain to be a choice among mediocrities.

It is extremely fortunate that the mutual relations of the great Powers of Europe are to-day as nearly cordial as they have been for many years, for the state of the Balkan peninsula is more than ever threatening to the peace of the world. If Rumania and Montenegro are quiet enough for the moment, and Greece too busy with bankruptcy and earthquakes to give her whole restless attention to foreign affairs, Servia and Bulgaria are in a very dangerous condition. In Servia the King is a boy; ex-King Milan—who has unlimited capacity to make mischief—has returned, regardless of the law and his own solemn promises; real or pretended conspiracies have been discovered; the Constitution has been abolished, and father and son are busy trying to govern the kingdom in defiance of the wishes of the overwhelming majority of the people. In Bulgaria there have long been indications of trouble between Mr. Stambuloff, the virtual dictator since 1886, and the prince he has created. Stambuloff has been dismissed, but he is able, powerful, and unscrupulous, not at all the man to yield without a struggle of some kind. Already there has been serious rioting in Sofia. Any day may witness the outbreak of a revolution in either country, followed by civil war, the danger of foreign intervention and of the reopening of the whole Eastern Question. Almost the only reassuring element in the situation is the fact that the feeling between Vienna and St. Petersburg has been better of late, and that both governments are sufficiently anxious to avoid a general war to be cautious about doing anything which might provoke it.

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THE NEW SILVER MOVEMENT.

THE disgust with tariff tinkering which is spreading among the people of both parties throughout the country, and the plain demonstration which the events of the last four years have now afforded that tariff-making is something which must in the long run ruin any democratic government by corrupting the Legislature, have apparently convinced some of the Republican managers that they must have a new issue in the next canvass. They have accordingly fixed on silver as their particular vanity, and have managed quite ingeniously to couple with it that odious power, the Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Mr. Lodge was put up to start the movement in the Senate. He perceived the enormous importance to commercial nations of more money—that is, of more silver—and then he asked himself, Who is it that hinders mankind from having as much silver money as it pleases? Why, England, of course, by adhering to the gold standard. Now, why does England adhere to the gold standard? If she adhered to it from philanthropic motives or desire to benefit the human race, Mr. Lodge would forgive her. He believes in sentimental money. But he found out that she adheres to it through pure selfishness, from a desire to benefit herself and make money in commercial operations. The effect of such a discovery on a nature like Mr. Lodge's may be readily imagined. He determined to "go for" England and compel her, by discriminating duties on her imports, to change her standard, to give ear to the bitter cry of the Coxeyites, and adopt a humane silver or bimetallic system.

The appearance of Mr. Lodge with this scheme in the Senate did not attract much attention, as he has for some time been working hard for popularity by any tools that come to hand. He is, in fact, a Presidential candidate in the very earliest stage, who has been much impressed by the large number of persons who are laboring under the silver hallucination, and, therefore, is perfectly overpowered by the weight of the silver arguments and the wickedness of gold-standard nations. But he has now been reinforced by Mr. Thomas B. Reed of Maine, who is also a Presidential candidate, but a very much weightier person than Mr. Lodge, and very much nearer to a nomination. Mr. Reed has been interviewed, and says he is of the same mind as Mr. Lodge. His attention too has been called to the sufferings of the world from want of more silver, and to the large exporting powers of the silver nations, like India, who are now competing with the United States. What is the remedy for this? Why, a union of the Latin nations to coerce England and Germany, by means of high discriminating tariffs, to change their standard. This will doubtless be the programme of the party in the next canvass, particularly if, after the passage of the Wilson bill, there should be two years of revived industry and prosperity.

The scheme is not worth discussing as a practical plan of legislation, any more than the fox's plan of having all his fellows cut off their tails after he had lost his own. Of course, in international trade, if you will not buy, you cannot sell, and we cannot discriminate against any European Power which would care about our discrimination, without cutting off our own trade. The largest market for our farm produce, in fact we might say the only one, is England, and a proposal to discriminate against her specially, together with Germany, savors of the kindergarten. Mr. Lodge's idea that by forcing England to retaliate he would blow "the free-trade system" to atoms, will only lead English business men to ask what his age is.

But, from the point of view of home politics, Mr. Reed's adhesion to the plan is one of the most encouraging of recent signs of the times. It shows pretty clearly that the Republican candidates—if not the Republican managers—consider the tariff, as a plan for raising the wages of American workmen, to have had its day. The workmen, to use the slang phrase, "have got on to it," and in so far as they desire the Government to raise their wages at all, desire it to be done by some sort of direct gift or subsidy or distribution, such as the Coxeyites ask for—that is, either the employment of labor by the Government, or a great issue of cheap money, either silver or paper. They are not willing any longer to have the bounty come through the manufacturers. Reed and Lodge have caught the idea. If they are to advocate a high tariff again at all, it will not be with the view of enabling the employers to pay better wages, but with the view of punishing England in the interest of "cheap money for the poor man."

The drift of public sentiment towards free trade, too, will, we think, be hastened by the blundering way in which the Senate has managed the Wilson bill. What the country sees clearly is that this remarkable display of corruption and incapacity has been called forth in the interest not of free trade, but of protection, and that, in short, it is almost hopeless, when once a high tariff has been put in operation, to look for real reduction or reform from any legislature. The influence of a high tariff on all legislatures is in the highest degree corrupting. Huge pecuniary interests grow up behind it, which are sure to defend themselves by every means in their power against legislative interference, and the readiest means is, of course, the seduction of the legislators. So that, as we see in the case of the Wilson bill, no matter what the people may vote for at the polls, if you give the beneficiaries of the tariff time to "see" the lawmakers and work upon them, there will be no change, or as little change as possible.

Against this influence the reformers have no means of defence. As a rule the pecuniary interest of free-traders in the tariff is small. With them the tariff is not "business." They therefore have nothing to oppose to the protectionist corruption but argument, and to argument the reply of the Gormans and Brices of course is that, "thanks be to God, they are not open to conviction." We predicted most of what has happened in a passage which we printed immediately after Mr. Cleveland's election, when urging him to call Congress together while the members were fresh from the polls and still felt strongly the reform impulse. More and more, therefore, every year, those who care for the future of democratic government will fight for its deliverance from the curse and snare of protective tariffs, and for the total withdrawal of the legal-tender quality from money. Legal tender is now, as it was when first invented, a means of keeping adulterated money in circulation, or, in other words, of cheating the poor and unwary. It puts the property and business of the community at the mercy of ignorance and fraud; and those who want to "see the government of the people, by the people, for the people," perpetuated, will try to confine taxation to the needs of revenue, and coinage to stamping and weighing.

SEPARATE CITY ELECTIONS.

WE are glad to see that the first subject to engage the attention of the Constitutional Convention's committee on cities is the proposition for an amendment so extending the terms of elective officials that national, State, and municipal elections can all be held in different years. This proposition is not a new one in this State. It was put forward first by the Constitutional Club of Brooklyn in 1885, and was submitted to the Legislature in the spring of that year. Its form to-day is precisely what it was then, though during its repeated submission to one Legislature after another it has undergone some temporary modifications. What it proposes is to lengthen the term of Governor and all minor State officials to a uniform period of four years. At present the Governor's term is three years, and that of minor State officials two years. It proposes, furthermore, to extend the term of Senators from two years to four, and the term of Assemblymen from one year to two, and to provide for biennial sessions of the Legislature.

With this arrangement of terms, the election of Governor, State officers, and State Senators could be placed midway between the elections for President—that is, every four years, beginning with 1894. This would bring every State elec-

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tion no nearer any Presidential election than two years, and the pestiferous influence of national politics, in the form of appeals to carry the election on national issues for the "moral" effect of the result upon a close-following national election, would be eliminated. The only State candidates who would have to be voted for in Presidential years would be members of the Assembly. The odd years between national and State elections could thus be reserved entirely for municipal elections, without either a national or a State candidate or issue to confuse or complicate them. Thus we should, under this division, elect a Governor, minor State officers, a State Senate and Assembly at one time. In the following year we should have a municipal election, with nothing except municipal candidates and issues before the voters. In the next following autumn we should have a Presidential election, with no State or local candidates, except members of the Assembly, to complicate, or serve as bases for trades and deals. The great advantages of this absolute separation are too obvious to be dwelt upon. The argument which has been raised so often against spring municipal elections, that the voters will not take interest in them, cannot be advanced against this plan, for the municipal elections will be held on the regular November date—that is, at the time to which the voters have become accustomed.

Heretofore more objection has been raised against the biennial-session part of the proposition than to any other, though there has been some raised also against the lengthening of official terms. So far as the biennial sessions are concerned, it is sufficient to say that all except six of the forty-four States have adopted the plan, and in none of them is there a serious movement in favor of returning to annual sessions. Maine adopted biennial sessions in 1880, and in 1888 the people rejected a proposition to restore annual sessions by a vote of 39,320 to 5,776. In two States, Georgia and Ohio, the law is evaded by the politicians, who, under plea of an adjourned session, manage to hold annual sessions, but the popular objection to this evasion, especially in Ohio, is so strong that the practice is not likely to continue. The six States which adhere to annual sessions are Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, and South Carolina. It would be difficult to show that any one of these is better off because of its annual sessions than the other forty-four States are with only half as many. So far as New York is concerned, we are convinced that if the people were given a chance to say whether or not they would cut down their supply of legislation one-half, they would answer in overwhelming numbers in favor of the reduction.

That four years is not regarded as too long a term for State officials is shown by the fact that nineteen States, nearly half the whole number, have that term now and do not find it in any way objectionable. In New York the gain of having our State elections turn on State issues alone would be so great that any disadvantage which might follow from the addition of one year to the Governor's term and the doubling of the terms of the minor State officials would be trifling in comparison. It is impossible to find any arguments in support of our present method of shorter terms for the minor offices than for Governor. The chief result of this arrangement is to keep our State elections dribbling along through other elections, complicating the whole of them with issues which distract the voters' attention and do no one except the machine politicians any good.

That separate elections are of great value in municipal affairs has been shown conclusively by the experience of Boston and other New England cities. In Massachusetts the elections in many cities are held about a month after the regular November elections. It has happened repeatedly that cities which have been carried by one party in the November elections on State or national issues, have turned about, a month later, and elected mayors of the opposite political faith on local issues alone. In one year, 1890, no less than six cities which had given Democratic majorities in November, elected Republican mayors in December, and six which had given Republican majorities in November, elected Democratic mayors in December. In all these cases the best men won without regard to their party names. In Boston there has been a Democratic majority given in every November election since 1880, but during the fourteen years between that time and the present the Republicans have four times elected a mayor in December, winning each of the four times because of the superior character of their nominee. The Democratic pluralities in November have ranged from 4,000 to 13,000, but have fallen in the four November defeats to a minority ranging from 700 to 5,460. The most complete reverse of all was in 1889, when the Democrats carried the city by 5,654 plurality in November, and lost it by 5,640 plurality in December. That the interest in municipal elections has been little less than that aroused in other elections is shown by the fact that the average falling-off in the December vote from the November vote was during ten years less than 2,500.

Similar results have been shown in the separate elections which are held in other New England cities and in Philadelphia. There is, it should be remembered, much more interest in municipal matters everywhere now than there was a few years ago. The one thing necessary to stimulate that interest and concentrate it upon the sole issue of good government is to eliminate all other questions from the municipal elections. Let the voters be called upon to decide between the capabilities of candidates to pave, police, light, drain, and rule the city, without regard to their views on the tariff, or pensions, or Hawaii, or silver, or the income tax, and we shall then be able to get a verdict in accordance with common sense and the rudimentary principles of good government.

THE PANIC AND POOR-RELIEF.

THE past winter, with its unusual demands on charity, furnished also unusual opportunities for the study of methods and results in the administration of charity. Several valuable reports from different cities have fallen under our notice, and it is instructive to group some of their conclusions.

One of them comes from New Haven, being tabulations relating to destitution and its relief in that city published in the last two numbers of the *Yale Review*. The particular aim was to show how greatly the distress and helplessness of the unemployed in New Haven had been exaggerated. Their numbers were put at 5,000 (out of a population of 81,000) by many "competent observers," including the mayor of the city, yet a police census, taken with characteristic looseness, found a total of only 2,886. These figures, of course, cover those who were usually idle in winter as well as those thrown out of employment by the hard times. On the other hand, the police may have overlooked some names that should have been recorded. But it is evident that the popular impression of the amount of destitution through lack of work erred seriously on the side of exaggeration.

This becomes still more clear when the demands made upon the organizations for poor-relief are studied in detail. The New Haven Organized Charities handled nearly all the money raised for aiding the unemployed, and from the records kept by that society an accurate comparison can be made with foregoing years. Comparing in this way the three months from last November to January, inclusive, with the corresponding period of the preceding year, it appears that there were 299 more cases of resident applicants for help, but 2,192 more of non-resident—in other words, of tramps. Taking the first quarter of this year, compared with the first three months of 1893, we find that there were 175 more cases of residents and 2,607 more of tramps. There was thus a positive falling off in resident destitution, though an increase in tramps. In New Haven, accordingly, the main question seems to come down to the inquiry why the city is so peculiarly attractive to tramps. The *Review* statistics handle admirably the returns from

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savings banks, by the test of which it appears that the poorer classes had resources of their own to fall back upon in an emergency, and also that times were actually better in New Haven in the first quarter of 1894 than in the same part of 1893.

Baltimore's experience last winter in banishing tramps and helping the unemployed is set forth in the last *Forum* by Mr. E. R. L. Gould. The main feature of the scheme devised by the city authorities in coöperation with the Citizens' Relief Committee, was the application of the "work test." It had its usual fatal results upon the tramp population, cutting down the lodgers at the police stations from 320 on January 1 to 200 on the 16th, to 80 on the 28th, and to zero on February 3. Work furnished the unemployed was undertaken on "economic principles"—that is, market rates were paid for raw material and demanded for the finished product, and the market rate for wages was paid as nearly as possible. Mr. Gould's conclusion from the whole experiment is:

> "No new sociological principles may be derived from Baltimore's experiments, but highly satisfactory sociological results have been accomplished. The potency of the work test in relieving a community of most of its vagrants and tramps has been once more established, and the feasibility of providing industrial work for relief purposes on a fairly large scale has been successfully demonstrated. Let us hope that these may soon avail against repetition of ill-advised schemes emanating from unwise philanthropists, interested politicians, or socialistic dreamers."

Of extraordinary interest is the report of a "special committee on public poor-relief" in Waterbury, Conn. That there was need of investigation was evident from the way the amounts expended in public alms had been increasing. During the past twenty-five years the taxable property has increased 56 per cent., the population 176 per cent., but the pauper expenditures 462 per cent. The amount paid out for poor-relief last year (exclusive of the sums expended on hospitals) was $38,452, or 88 cents per capita. This is among the highest per-capita taxes for relief of the poor paid by any of the Connecticut cities; and Connecticut, as Prof. McCook has demonstrated, "leads the world in its dispensation of public alms."

The committee was not long in finding that the great leak came in the abuses, so often exposed but so hard to abandon, of out-door relief. Some of the cases taken from the selectmen's books are simply astounding. A man convicted on December 4 of keeping a house of ill fame had got groceries and fuel from the city authorities only three days before. One family had been enjoying public relief for eight years consecutively, and in that time the husband had been arrested once for non-support, five times for breach of the peace, and twelve times for drunkenness. One woman who had received outdoor relief for seven years, and who was helped to the extent of $58.50 in 1893, has the following police record: "Arrested in August, 1892, for drunkenness; arrested in February, 1893, for keeping a house of ill-fame; arrested in November, 1893, for drunkenness." So overwhelming was the evidence collected by the committee of the "vast amount of hereditary and chronic pauperism" directly caused by the unwise methods of poor-relief so long in vogue, that a special town-meeting, called to consider the report, passed resolutions which will lead to an immediate reform of the worst features of the system, and ultimately to its total abolition.

THE LATE G. J. ROMANES.

OXFORD, May 26, 1894.

GEORGE JOHN ROMANES, F.R.S., died at Oxford very suddenly, though after an illness of intermittent severity which had lasted more than two years, on Wednesday, May 23. His achievements in science would doubtless have created more stir if he had not possessed that unusual fairness of spirit and openness of mind which made it constitutionally impossible for him to advocate pronounced and uncompromising views. The ripeness of judgment and breadth of view which characterized the later years of his vigor would, however, have been sure to culminate in the very highest sort of original work had not his failing health come in as an impediment and finally cut him off in his forty-sixth year.

He was born in 1848 at Kingston, Canada, where his father had established himself, having been sent out by Dr. Chalmers as a sort of Presbyterian bishop charged with the general organization of the Church in Canada. The name Romanes is not uncommon in Scotland, and it was in the north of Scotland that Mr. G. J. Romanes spent the summers of many active years of his manhood. At his place in Rossshire he went into the careful study of material drawn from the ocean at his doors—jelly-fish, star-fish, and sea-urchins. His education was not in any of the English public schools, but came from private tuition given him in London and on the Continent; as a boy he spent some years in Spain, for instance. He was graduated with honors in science at Gonville and Caius College, which he left in 1870, and of which he was afterwards made an honorary fellow. Having come to Cambridge with no pronounced tastes, and with the prospect of following out some one of the more usual courses of study there pursued, he was strongly and permanently attached to scientific work by Prof. Michael Foster, then prelector at Trinity. Upon leaving Cambridge he continued his studies at University College, under the auspices of Prof. Burdon-Sanderson, through whom he made the acquaintance of the great Charles Darwin. Darwin's attention having already been attracted by contributions which Romanes had made to *Nature*, the acquaintance, which began in 1874, soon ripened into an unusually strong friendship, and culminated during the later years of Darwin's life in the closest intimacy. These circumstances, combined with the previous bent of his mind and his special studies, made Mr. Romanes one of the most representative successors of Darwin. The very fact that he maintained an independent initiative, and could not insist upon the letter of the Darwinian law enough to meet the views of all Darwinists, constitutes his best title as Darwin's representative. A recognition of this among other things may be found in his election as a fellow of the Royal Society in 1879.

His investigations were by no means confined to observations and experiments upon the lower forms of sea-life, but they concerned also the signs and symptoms of mental evolution among animals in general. Indeed, his experiments and recorded observations in the case of a monkey in the Zoölogical Gardens attracted much attention, the more so because they appeared in a volume, published in 1883, containing a hitherto unpublished essay upon instinct by Charles Darwin himself. In the year 1885, Lord Rosebery founded a professorship at Edinburgh for the special behoof of Mr. Romanes, who delivered there his lectures on the 'Philosophy of Natural History.' The same matter, or practically the same, was incorporated in the more extensive course which Mr. Romanes gave when appointed, in 1888, Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the Royal Institution in London. These lectures were published under the title of 'Before and After Darwin,' and should be distinguished at least chronologically from Mr. Romanes's 'Darwin and After Darwin,' published in 1892. His agreement with his master did not prevent his dwelling in these lectures and publications upon points in organic evolution which could not, in his opinion, be cleared up satisfactorily by Darwinism pure and simple. How sincere he was in regarding himself as the most loyal of Darwinians, will be brought home to any one who turns to certain passages where intense admiration of the great naturalist takes on an almost lyric form of expression.

Mr. Romanes used to defend such passages in prose against the reviewers, always in ambush and ready to pounce upon the accidental blank verse of prose-writers. Certain themes and certain ideals seemed to him not to justify only, but to require, some departure of this kind from the accredited modes of pedestrian writing. Not the least interesting among the traits of this strictly scientific scholar was the poetic temperament which found private expression in verses known to his friends. The wideness of his view of life is further exemplified in the active sympathy given by him to the movement in favor of opening galleries, museums, and libraries on Sunday. While in London he gave many Sunday lectures, and thus contributed by efforts of his own toward the practice of the sort of Sunday observance in which he believed. Such a man was not in his element where controversy was at its height, but still he had a fair share even of that. His publication in 1886 of "an additional suggestion on the origin of species," wherein he developed his theory of "physiological selection," did as a matter of fact give rise to a very notable war of words. Since his ripest years have been incapacitated by an illness which has just ended fatally, and deprived science of the full and final fruits of his original research, it must now be recorded as his greatest service that he did much towards the successful confirmation of Darwin's views. Adherents and opponents alike will allow that these views were brought by Mr. Romanes before the non-scientific public in such a manner as to win a fair hearing and gain a wide acceptance for them. A few of his more notable books not mentioned above are his 'Animal Intelligence,' 1881, his 'Scientific Evidences of Organic Evolution,' 1881, and his 'Mental Evolution in Man,' 1888. His contributions to magazines have been numerous, and are well known.

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Mr. Romanes came to live in Oxford rather more than a year before his health broke down, and was made an M.A. and a member of Christ Church College. His foundation of the Romanes lecture, and the three lectures of Mr. Gladstone, Profs. Huxley and Weismann—all this is of recent and familiar notoriety. His friends, however, have alone the privilege of remembering his rare fortitude under suffering, and the devotion to scientific work from which he remitted nothing to the very last. Less than an hour before the fatal stroke of apoplexy, he was engrossed in preparations for a series of experiments that he hoped to complete during the summer. L. Dyer.

ÎLE DE FRANCE AND PICARDY.—IV.

London, April, 1894.

Noyon, our next station, has an interesting municipal history, which has lately been fully investigated from manuscript sources by M. Abel Lefranc in one of the monographs of the École des Hautes-Études. It appears that this city has been too much congratulated on the pacific origin and course of its commune, and that the legend which has grown up, of a benevolent bishop promoting its charter and the Church looking with a favorable eye upon the commune, is no more warranted by facts in Noyon than it would be in Laon. There was, indeed, less fighting than in the neighboring towns of Saint-Quentin, Chauny, Soissons, Laon, Amiens, and Beauvais, but there was continual litigation.

Noyon was a typical episcopal city, full of canons, clerks, and proctors. Its many churches and its rich and powerful abbeys covered half of its territory, and received the greater part of the revenues. Among themselves the ecclesiastics were not always at peace. The bishops and the monasteries or the bishops and the chapter were often at loggerheads, nor was it always the bishop who was victorious. But bishop, canons, and monks were firmly united when it came to a contest with the laity, whether it was with the châtelain or the commune, and they ended by getting substantially the whole power into their own hands. The châtelains of the tenth and eleventh centuries were not the same officers as those who are found in the latter part of the eleventh and later. The first were delegates of the king, the second were lieutenants of the bishops, but the struggle for power seems to have been equally eager in both cases. The earlier châtelains were no doubt more offensive to the bishops, who had no authority over them, and were equally hated by the commune which they oppressed. So the citizens willingly joined Bishop Hardouin de Croÿ when, taking advantage of the absence of the châtelain and his men, and getting admission to the castle on pretext of showing to the châtelaine a rich piece of silk, he carried her off to his palace and entirely destroyed the keep. At first it seemed as if his successful stratagem had not profited him much, for he was obliged to flee to Flanders to escape the king's wrath. But everything turned out well; for the Count of Flanders, bribed by the surrender of some altars which the bishop owned in his territories, made peace for him with King Robert, the donjon never was rebuilt, and the royal châtelain disappears from Noyonese history. The bishops were thereafter supreme masters, being counts and high justiciaries, till they themselves set up a line of châtelains as their substitutes in the execution of justice, when these delegates, usurping power wherever they could, became in time rivals to their originators, and would gladly have played the rôle of masters of the palace, but did not succeed.

The other lay enemy was the commune. Its charter, the first communal charter except that of Cambrai, granted at the very beginning of the twelfth century, was made of little effect before the close of the thirteenth by the fault of those who held it—the aristocratic bourgeois. For the commune of the Middle Ages was no more democratic than the Italian republics, or the Greek republics, or the Southern States of our Union before the civil war. The "liberties" of the city did not belong to the people, who had no political power, but to the rich and influential families, who divided the offices among themselves and managed the finances without control. Naturally, when he who pays and he who spends are different persons, the one becomes in time wearied of the burden or the other becomes careless and extravagant. The first of these results appears in the terrible riots of the thirteenth century at Ypres, Ghent, and Bruges in Flanders, where manufactures had made the working class strong, and in some of the larger cities of France. But Noyon, which once had had considerable commerce, had declined in industry; the Church had entirely got the upper hand; it was a city of clerks and monks, of convents and churches—*Noyon la Sainte*, with even a better right to the title than Laon. Its laboring class were in proper subjection, and its communal life peaceable compared to the bustling towns around. Its only two riots were in 1027, when the people followed the Bishop in razing the castle, and in 1223, when they followed the magistrates in a quarrel with the canons, and, attacking the cathedral, maltreated its officials. But this very submissiveness of the people led the aristocracy into financial extravagances which resulted in their abasement. The city failed! It was absolutely unable to meet its obligations, and the liquidation took half a century. The embarrassment and discredit that this state of things brought upon the magistracy—combined with the loss of their cause in the matter that had led to the riot of 1223, when a court of appeal, in which were the Archbishop of Rheims and the King himself, condemned them to pay damages, make an apology, and thereafter annually to take oath never to lay hand on the person or the goods of the canons, clerks of the choir, or sergeants of the chapter, and never to raise the seditious cry of *Commune! Commune!*—left them shorn of their power. Henceforth the bishops ruled untrammelled.

There is no new lesson to be drawn from this sketch of the history of a pious town. These are old morals—that for power to be stable its basis must be broad, and that where authority has no check it is likely to have little duration. But it is interesting to find the troubles of the present day cropping out six centuries ago—a corrupt ring, a great debt, and a *populus qui vult decipi*. The financial failure of a mediæval town, too, is perhaps something unusual. Is there any other example?

The cathedral is a fine example of a transitional church. In the eleventh century round arches alone were used; in the thirteenth they had entirely disappeared in northern France, and ogives were your only wear; but in the century between, in which the cathedrals of St. Denis, Noyon, Laon, and Senlis were erected, though the builders were pleased with the new and graceful form brought by pilgrims from the East, and had perceived many of its constructional advantages, the employers had not yet lost their love for the arch of their fathers. A compromise seems to have been the result. The architects freely mixed the two styles, at Laon sandwiching two stories of round arches between the ogives on the ground floor and those in the clerestory, and at Noyon putting two stories of round above two stories of pointed arches. The columns show the same indecision; a simple round shaft and a group of columns alternating in the nave. The circular ends of its transepts, too, are a feature which the cathedral shares with those of Tournay and Soissons, but which could not be found in any church of the next century.

But the mixture of styles, though it is interesting to observe, is after all of little importance. The main question is, What result did the architect draw from his materials? Now Noyon is singularly pleasing, and merits all the praises which its enthusiastic historian lavishes upon it. It is well set, too, among buildings of a grave, decorous character, such as one would expect to find in a city of priests and monks. The chapter-house adjoins it on the north, and one side of a very fine cloister, pleasant enough to make one wish to be a monk, in which are displayed columns and capitals and slabs from parts of the buildings that have disappeared. Many great monuments in France have this museum of architectural relics, from which one sometimes gets a better idea of the past richness of decoration than from the building itself. C. R.

A BLIND ARCHITECTURAL GUIDE.

Alassio, May 15, 1894.

One is tempted to think that a chronology of architecture which gives a year-by-year table of the architectural events of Europe from the year 303 of the present era to 1626* must be interesting and useful to the student. The period embraced between the foundation of the first basilica of St. Peter at Rome and the dedication of the present church covers the history of modern architecture—at least all of it which is of any great value. Mr. Tavenor Perry's Chronology is supplemented by an index of names of places by means of which it is easy to follow the growth of; for instance, a given cathedral, from its foundation to its completion, with the various additions it may have received and the restorations undergone. Then comes a table of architects, sculptors, and other persons referred to in the chronology, and lastly a list of authorities consulted. To all this there is an introductory synoptical table of the characteristics distinguishing "the various periods of Western architectural art."

Now such a book ought to be of handy reference, but a slight examination proves it to be, if not absolutely worthless, at least very far from fulfilling the promise it holds out. The statement of the publisher that the work is intended to accompany Fergusson, together with the assertion of its preface that nowhere has the rise and fall of the Gothic schools been so completely described as in the pages of the 'Handbook of Architecture,' might well make one suspect that this is only another of the happy-go-lucky compilations in which England is already too rich. *Ex pede Herculem;* the suspicion soon becomes a certainty. For instance, opening the book at random, here is the record for the year 1233; though short, it

*'The Chronology of Mediæval and Renaissance Architecture; a date-book of architectural art, from the building of the ancient Basilica of S. Peter's, Rome, to the consecration of the present church.' By J. Tavenor Perry, member of the Royal Institute of British Architects. London: John Murray. 1893.

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is long enough to illustrate the merits and defects of the work:

"Bazas—Cathedral begun.
"Dunkirk—Hôtel de Ville first built.
"Heisterbach—Choir of church consecrated.
"Lucca—Duomo. Bronze reliefs by Nicola da Pisa.
"Milan—*Piazza dei Mercanti* built."
"Southwell—Minster. Choir and chapter-house begun by Bp. Walter de Grey."

We will refrain for the moment from any criticism of the first three entries in this list (though each of them gives rise to exceptions), but with regard to the reliefs at Lucca, where did Mr. Perry learn that they were in bronze? Most people who have seen them have taken them for marble, as indeed Vasari expressly states them to be, in praising enthusiastically their workmanship. As to the name of the artist, under the date 1230 is found S. Maria della Spina at Pisa, and under 1231, St. Antonio at Padua, both by Niccolò Pisano. Does Mr. Perry suppose that this is another artist from him who did the reliefs at Lucca, or does he simply think it of no consequence how his name is spelled? He is certainly capable of the latter belief, perhaps also of the former. In the succeeding entry, what does he think is *the meaning of Piazza*? *The building* he indicates—the only one, that is, of about this date—is the Palazzo della Ragione. It is situated in the middle of the Piazza dei Mercanti. On one side is the Palazzo degli Osii, which Mr. Perry mentions under its approximate date, and on the other is the beautiful Palazzo dei Giureconsulti, which he does not mention at all. Indeed, it appears upon further examination that what is inserted and what is left out are equally without rhyme or reason, and in obedience solely to the dictates of the author's intelligence. What this is can be illustrated if not explained.

Opening the book, again at random, you may find that the date 1507 is on a window of the church of S. Godard at Rouen, that in 1508 the retable of the high altar in the cathedral of Avila was painted, that in 1509 the clock was put into the gable of the porch of the Frauenkirche in Nuremberg (under the same date Fergusson's blunder about the "Holy Anders" church at Wisby is repeated), and in 1510 benches were put into the church at Kiedrich. We would not doubt the importance of these and similar facts to some people. To Mr. Perry they would appear highly remarkable. With regard to the little town of Villingen, he has three notes: 1478, Rathhaus, earthenware stove; 1537, Rathhaus, date on doorway; 1613, Minster, date on font. In 1538 the bells of Madley Church were brought from the Abbey Dore. Carried out with such minuteness this work ought to have consisted of ten volumes instead of one. As it is, the space for these trifles must be gained at the expense of more considerable things.

After a slight examination, one might say—at the risk of seeming Irish, to be sure—that the omissions are the principal part of the book. Two inferior churches at Pavia are spoken of, but no mention is made of S. Michele, which to the architect and archæologist is worth all the other churches in the city put together. At Aachen the first date given for the minster is 1353, when the late Gothic choir was begun; the nave built by Charlemagne after the model of S. Vitale at Ravenna, and for which he brought not only artists, but marbles and bronzes, from Italy, one of the most interesting monuments in all Germany, is utterly ignored. Why, when the hôtels-de-ville of S. Quentin and Noyon are given, should not also be those of Dreux, Compiègne, Middleburg? Why, when Mr. Perry recognizes the existence of Münster, should he be oblivious of Osnabrück? or what claim has the Jesuit church in Bonn to mention which is not good in a much higher degree for the cathedral there? Why should a chronicle of Gothic art be silent about Morienval, where the Gothic principle was perhaps first essayed? How can a list of Renaissance art in France omit the châteaux of Amboise, Anet, Châteaudun, Écouen, Beauregard, or how can its record of mediæval art be complete without a word of Aigues-Mortes, the fortifications of Carcassonne or the churches in the lower town there, of Moulins, of Paray-le-Monial, of Coucy-le-Château, of Valence, or Vincennes? So we have Mantua without the palaces del Te or of Giulio Romano, Verona without S. Zeno, Brescia without the Madonna dei Miracoli, Parma without the Madonna della Steccata, Piacenza without S. Maria della Campagna, Genoa without S. Maria in Carignano, Rimini without S. Francesco, Vicenza without anything of Palladio except the Rotonda or Villa Capra (which Mr. Perry characteristically calls Villa Capri), and no Urbino at all, no Gubbio, nor Bergamo, nor Pienza, nor Pesaro.

But why go on? These omissions are a part only of those revealed by a cursory examination, but "enough is as good as a feast." Our little excursions of discovery among Mr. Perry's pages might have been a little dull had not the dead level of blunders been occasionally enlivened by an eminence that shows our author to be remarkable in his way. We were startled by stumbling upon the name of Söchisher-Reen, which did not evoke any memory and did not smack of any country or any language in Europe. Gazetteers, architectural works, and atlases were in vain interrogated—no such place was found. Perseverance, however, elicited the fact that Mr. Perry had merely played one of his little tricks upon the name of Săchsisch-Reen in Hungary. The second surprise was still more diverting: among the churches of Milan was found, with the date 1477, that of S. Abbiate Grasso. About thirty kilometres from Milan there is a small town called Abbiategrasso, which has a church ascribed to Bramante, that may well be of the year given. It certainly is a peculiar ingenuity that can evolve from such a fact as this a new fat saint for the calendar. But Homer nods, and even Mr. Perry cannot always remain at the height of Mrs. Malaprop; most of his slips of spelling and language are trivial enough to excite compassion in place of admiration. Blaubeuren appears in his pages twice as Blaube*vern*, and once, *with an effort after exactness worthy of* a better result, as Blaubeüren. Chernonceaux, la Martorena (3 times), S. Salvatoro, Palazzo Abbergati, Luca della Robia are other few examples of his orthography, while his Italian is represented by such jewels of speech as Piazza *degli* Signori, S. Maria della Grazie, Sagra Spico (for Sagro Speco), etc. Of course there is either no question of accents, or they fall where they will, as in S. Maria di Gèsu.

In fact, one is at a loss to know what Mr. Perry has ever seen, what judged, or what learned. The things left out prove that he has yet to see many of the most important architectural centres of Europe, the things put in that he has no judgment, the authorities cited that he does not know what or how to read. His book is a haphazard compilation, with scarcely a pretence of original research, made without sufficient knowledge to control the sources of information or to distinguish what is worth noting from what is worthless.

In itself considered, the idea of chronological tables of architecture is not a bad one, but, in order to be of any use to anybody, it would not be amiss that they should be made up by some one who really knows about the art in question. Mr. Perry's book reminds one of the curious fact that architecture, the art most closely related to every-day life, has been, in English at least, almost exclusively treated by charlatans or Dryasdusts, patiently occupied with the dead details, but stone-blind to everything in it that is living and essential. This is so much the case that it was a surprise when, a short time ago, Sir F. Leighton, in his lecture before the students of the Royal Academy upon the Gothic period in Germany, said that Gothic architecture seemed to him a matter of principles rather than of forms. Academic reserve did not allow Sir Frederic to state his conviction more strongly, but in point of fact, since the appearance of Viollet-le-Duc's 'Dictionnaire Raisonné de l'Architecture Française,' in 1858, there has been no excuse on the part of educated artists for thinking otherwise. There is no more doubt than in the case of a proposition of Euclid. Still, there are reasons why the truth should be of difficult acceptance in England, and Mr. Perry gives abundant evidence that the old school of ignorance is still alive.

Indeed, while in France writers have not been wanting capable of explaining just what Gothic architecture is, I know of but one book *in English that clearly embodies the results of* modern research on the subject. This is the work of an American,* and consequently free from the chauvinistic bias that makes Englishmen try to prove that if Gothic art was not born in their country, it was at least as much at home there as in France, and produced there some of its noblest triumphs. Mr. Moore shows to a certainty what were the exigencies that gave rise to that art in France, and how these exigencies determined absolutely every feature of it. Thus much he does in following Viollet-le-Duc and other French authors; then of himself, but with equal mathematical conclusiveness, he shows that in England, unless the work of Frenchmen or directly inspired by French influences, there is no such thing as Gothic architecture as it was evolved in its native land. He shows, for instance, how the cathedrals of Salisbury and Wells are nothing but an application of pointed arch forms to Romanesque (or Norman, as the English call it) construction. In adopting the pointed arch, the English builders seemed to think that they had assimilated what was essential in the new art; but because they were bound by the mere *forms, and oblivious of the principles and the* system of which these were but a consequence and part, Mr. Moore refuses the name of Gothic to their architecture. And without being a rigorous purist, one can hardly refuse assent to the proposition: if that which constitutes the architectural distinction of Rheims and Amiens, differentiating them from the Abbaye-aux-Dames at Caen, be what we agree to call Gothic, it would be absurd to give the same name to the architecture of Salisbury, where the essentials are borrowed from Normandy, and then "make believe" only to be something they are not. Similarly, Germany and Italy borrowed the art without understanding its *raison d'être*, and so for the most part did nothing but misrepresent it. Mr. Moore accordingly bestows the name *pointed* on all mediæval architecture outside of France, or rather of that part of it, with Paris for a centre,

*'Development and Character of Gothic Architecture.' By Charles Herbert Moore. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

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where the true Gothic was invented and practised.

It will be readily seen that this nomenclature will not be acceptable to everybody—notably not to Englishmen. None the less is it true that our language boasts no more clear, sufficient, and convincing statement of what Gothic art really is than the work of Mr. Moore. S. K.

Correspondence.

THE LATEST SCIENTIFIC DEVELOPMENTS OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the International Bimetallic Conference held in London, May 2 and 3, Mr. A. J. Balfour is reported to have thus expressed himself:

"The general consensus of scientific economic opinion has now for many years been thrown with an overwhelming balance of opinion into the scale of the double standard. I am not offering now an opinion as to whether the double standard is just or is expedient—I am only discussing whether it is possible; and I say that on that question there is practically now a consensus of the whole economic scientific opinion which has devoted itself to the elucidation of this problem, and any man who, in the face of that opinion, now quotes any of the old tags about demand and supply making it impossible to fix a ratio between the two metals, or such doctrines as that the interference of the State to fix prices must necessarily fail—any man who now relies on arguments of that kind to show that the double standard is an impossible expedient, does nothing else than write himself down an individual ignorant of the latest scientific developments of political economy."

Mr. Balfour's remarks are very similar to, and almost identical in substance with, some made by Prof. Andrews of Brown University at the Congress of Economics and Politics held in this city March 29 and 30 of the present year.

Mr. Balfour went on to say that "of course the percolation of scientific opinion through the general body of the community is slow," etc. Now the practical consideration of this subject internationally has not been by the general body of the community, as one might infer from Mr. Balfour's remarks, but by the "judicious few" who have given the subject profound study on account of its practical bearings on the general welfare—trained experts, as it were. At the first session of the Paris International Monetary Congress of 1881, M. Magnin referred to the two great preceding congresses held in Paris, the first in 1867 and the second in 1878, at the first of which, in a representation of twenty States (only two of them then maintaining the gold standard), the conclusion was reached that the surest basis for the monetary unity of the future should be sought in the gold standard, "with silver, if need be, as a temporary companion" — in which the delegates concurred by a seven-eighths majority. In 1876, a commission was appointed in this country to consider the subject, from which the Paris Congress of 1878 resulted. Practically, the action of the Paris Congress of 1867 was confirmed by that of 1878, and also that of 1881, and also that of Brussels of 1892, and gold remains to-day the standard of all the great commercial nations.

In view of the deliberate conclusions, thrice confirmed by the best-equipped men available as judges, men who brought to the consideration of the subject substantially all that is comprised in the term scientific attainment—knowledge and wisdom derived from study, observation, and practical experience—what does Mr. Balfour mean by his assertion that any man who now "quotes any of the old tags, etc., writes himself down as ignorant of the latest scientific developments of political economy"? Prof. Andrews's remarks, already referred to, indicated that he deemed the exclusion of silver from free coinage to have been vastly calamitous, nationally and internationally.

Such assertions by men like Mr. Balfour and President Andrews confirm the free-silver advocates, the Populists, the Prohibitionists, Coxeyites, etc., in their delusion that they have been grievously wronged by the exclusion of silver from unrestricted free coinage. Will you kindly give us a synopsis of "the latest scientific developments of political economy" in this particular field of investigation to which Mr. Balfour refers, and to which Prof. Andrews also referred in like tone?

A Layman.

San Francisco, May 26, 1894.

A NICE POINT OF BIBLICAL ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Luke xxiv. 51, in the authorized version of the Bible, we read "he *was parted from* them and carried up into heaven." Instead of this, the Victorian revisers give, after Wakefield and others, "he *parted from* them," etc. Tyndale, followed by many, has "he *departed from* them," all one with which is Wycliffe's "he *departide fro* hem."

Whether the learned often differ, nowadays, from the unlearned, in their understanding of *he was parted from them*, as occurring above, is exceedingly questionable. Do they not take the construction to be passive? So, at all events, it is taken by one of the recent Revisers, the Rev. W. G. Humphry, Prebendary of St. Paul's Cathedral, who, in his *Commentary on the Revised Version of the New Testament* (1882), observes on the new rendering and the one replaced by it: "The Greek has not a passive sense." Consonantly, in the *Bible Word-book* (1884), Dr. W. A. Wright, one of the Revisers' secretaries, explains the *parted* under discussion by "separated," and parallels the *was parted* with *were parted* in Shakspere's "They *were parted* With foul and violent tempest."

On the view thus indicated of *was parted* in Luke, it is assumed that the divines employed under King James I. were so unscholarly as to suppose a passive in διέστη, "stood apart," etc.

Tyndale's translation has "he *departed from* them, and was caryed vp in to heven." But it seems as if, to the Revisers of 1611, *depart from*, compared with *part from*, went too far, and suggested the idea of withdrawal, ensuing on separation, beyond that which is warranted by διιστάναι. Furthermore, as one may conjecture, it was considerations of rhythm that led them, when they substituted the shorter word for the longer, to prefix to it, as they did with the allowance of living usage, *was;* the result being that, at least to us of the nineteenth century, they appear, unless minutely scrutinized, to have intended two passives, *was parted* and *was carried up*. Besides this, in any English short of very archaic *was parted* implies that some external agency was brought to bear in order to Christ's retiring from his congregated disciples.

That *was*, in the character of a passive auxiliary, is to be mentally resumed before *carried up*, in "he was parted from them, and carried up into heaven," is obvious. Yet, before *parted, was* is a copular auxiliary, not a passive; just as it is in the obsolescent "he *was* risen." Such is my position; but it remains to make it good.

Mr. Goold Brown, like a genuine old-school grammarian, classes *I am mistaken*, "I have made a mistake," among "errors of conjugation, or, perhaps, of syntax." In No. 1442 of the *Nation*, setting forth the rationale of that locution, I have demonstrated that we have, in it, as we frequently have, the adjectival use of the past participle of an intransitive verb. And the same use, I contend, is presented in the *was parted* before us, where *parted* denotes "gone apart."

The option, at present, of *I mistook*, in preference to *I was mistaken*, is mainly a matter of taste; the two expressions, while equivalent in import, being, almost in an equal degree, at once intelligible to everybody. Different, however, are the old Biblical *was parted from* and *parted from* which has been proposed to take its place; in that the former, over and above its having entirely passed out of currency, is altogether misleading. The Revisers' phrase is, therefore, liable to no objection, except that, though it occasions no perplexity, it is rapidly falling into desuetude.

Of the intransitive *part*, in its sense which is but slightly distinguishable from that of *depart*, a sense of it far from uncommon in Elizabethan English, no earlier authority than Milton's is adduced by Dr. Johnson, or by his editors, Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Latham. And they all hastily derive it from the French *partir*. The fact escaped them, that the conversion of a transitive verb, with or without an intervening reflexive, is an ordinary phenomenon, and that such a conversion may have befallen *part*. But again, and not improbably, the intransitive *part* originated, by aphesis, from the intransitive *depart*, in which *de-* is atonic. That it was felt to be shortened from *depart* is evidenced, it may be, by the anomalous use of it seen in the subjoined verses, dating some time before 1600, from Sir John Harington's *Epigrams*, Book IV., No. 42:

> "A man appointed, vpon losse of life,
> With bag and baggage, at a time assin'd,
> To *part* a towne, his foule vnweildy wife
> Desired him that she might stay behind."

Here we have the like of *depart* in "he *departed* this life," as we have again in the following quotation:

"In truth, their perpetual teasings diminished my regret at *parting* this second Eden." Anon., *The Minor* (1787), vol. ii., p. 222.

A short time ago, in the course of some remarks on *to part from* and *to part with*, I said that the Bible nowhere exhibits either of the combinations. I had consulted a concordance for them; and a friend has reminded me that I cannot have extended my search to *parted*, where there is a reference to Luke xxiv. 51. This latter has, indeed, no justification in my carelessness; but yet it is amply justified by the circumstance that, though the *was parted* on which I have been dwelling must have been misapprehended by readers without number, nothing, so far as I have means of discovering, has been hitherto written to rectify their misapprehension. F. H.

Marlesford, England, April 7, 1894.

INTERNATIONAL POSTAGE STAMPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A fatal objection appears to me to stand in the way of the adoption of international postage stamps. Each country, ex-

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pediting at its own cost its external correspondence to the confines of the countries to which such correspondence is addressed, and delivering free within its own borders correspondence received from abroad, retains the full value of the postage stamps it sells. No accounts for ordinary postage are kept between nations. It is presumed that upon the average one letter will bring one reply, one newspaper another newspaper. International postage stamps would hopelessly complicate this arrangement. If I bought four shillings and twopence' worth of such stamps here and sent them to a friend in New York, the United Kingdom would pocket the money, and the United States would be at the expense of forwarding gratis one dollar's worth of mail matter.—Sincerely yours, ALFRED WEBB.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, LONDON, May 22, 1894.

Notes.

GINN & Co. will publish next month 'The Philosophy of Teaching,' by Arnold Tompkins.

The Messrs Putnam will begin in July the publication of "The Hudson Library," a new fiction series of bi-monthly issues. The initial volume will be 'Love and Shawl-Straps,' by Annette L. Noble. They have also in press 'Eyes like the Sea,' by Maurice Jókai,' and 'The Story of South Africa,' by George M. Theal.

Dr. W. J. Rolfe supplies an exceedingly long introduction, treating almost entirely of the development of the Romeo and Juliet story and the various forms which it took on before it reached Shakspere's hands, to a reprint of an English translation of Da Porto's charming sixteenth-century tale, 'Juliet and Romeo' (Boston: Joseph Knight Co.). More interesting than such a mass of descriptive matter would have been some information as to the condition of the Italian *novella* in Da Porto's time, and the relation which his work and style bear to those of his contemporaries and predecessors. The little book is bound in white, and contains a number of illustrations, almost all of which are modern and romantic in spirit, and entirely inappropriate for an Italian story of nearly three centuries ago.

To appreciate thoroughly Abel Hermant's 'La Carrière' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Charles Eitel), the reader needs to have his Paris—his boulevard, that is—at his finger's ends, and to be entirely willing to concede that Scribe's view of history and diplomacy was the correct one. It is that adopted by M. Hermant in his representation of the inner working of courts, embassies, and salons generally. The dialogue (with brief exceptions the whole book is a dialogue) is full of the latest slang, of suggestion and allusion, admirably managed, and bringing out the particular characters as they successively appear. It is a bit fatiguing, too, for the abrupt, broken phrases and the frequent stage directions pall quickly.

A very different as well as more satisfactory piece of work is Jean Reibrach's 'Les Lendemains' (Paris: Ollendorff), which is a very delicate, very subtle, very fascinating study of a woman's heart. The style is daintily engaging, at times languorous, at times pathetic, always refined and winning. There is not much plot, but one does not miss it; the story, slight as it is, being told so well and the revulsions in the heroine's feelings so cleverly analyzed. The hero is romantic, a vague remembrance of Chateaubriand and Hugo; but there is, by way of ample compensation, a very lovely portrait of a pure, frank, firm girl, a type not often attempted by the French novelist. 'Les Lendemains' will amply repay perusal.

'La Cendre' is by one of the *Jeunes*, Fernand Vandérem (Paris: Ollendorff), and is sure to succeed with the French of Paris and a few foreigners. It makes one reflect on the French love of conventionality: there was the conventional classical tragedy of the seventeenth century; the conventional "homme bon" of the eighteenth; the conventional "homme fatal" of the Romantic school, and then the conventional woman who is always an adulteress in thought, word, or deed—usually all three—and the conventional man who marries only to make an end. He and his females are M. Vandérem's characters, and their sensualities are dignified with the name of love, and their lying and treachery are carefully, affectionately depicted, and every one deceives every one else. The book is very conventionally French, and the life it depicts possibly true, but very wearisome and stale and unprofitable.

M. Gaston Boissier's latest work, 'La Fin du Paganisme' (Hachette & Cie.), will interest many classes of readers. Moot questions are passed upon ingeniously and plausibly, with ample learning to arrest the attention of the best informed. The whole mass of biography and literary criticism which makes up his two stout volumes is strictly relevant evidence in favor of a single simple thesis. This thesis is, that modern civilization has resulted from a compromise between Christianity and pagan culture which had reached an issue at the time of the fall of Rome, was laid on the table by the invading barbarians, and was revived and definitively passed upon by the Renaissance and Reformation. To the first of these three periods, the fourth century after Christ, M. Boissier devotes his present study. Everywhere he insists upon the fundamentally compromising policy of the Christians, especially in politics, education, and literature. Contrary to the usual opinion, he maintains that the platform of the Church was tolerance, liberalism of the most marked nature, and that the Church was heartily with the Empire until its ruin became an irrevocable fact, and self-preservation commanded an acceptance of the new order of things. To the fundamental objection that Christianity could not without self-debasement have countenanced so corrupt an institution as the late Empire, M. Boissier opposes the unprejudiced, because unintentional, evidence of Symmachus, to prove that Roman society in the fourth century was far less vicious than the current opinion of it due to uncritical reading of polemists like St. Jerome.

The thirteenth instalment of Hatzfeld, Darmesteter and Thomas's 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' (Paris: Charles Delagrave) concludes the letter E and makes beginning of F. The scheme of this popular work approximates it to Webster or Worcester. It gives the pronunciation, and, very concisely, the etymology of each word, with a fair number of illustrative citations, and at all points may be instructively compared with the much fuller Littré. We will note here a difference in syllabication when indicating the pronunciation, as (*exhorter*), Littré è-gzor-té, Hatzfeld èg'-zòr-té; (*exfoliation*) Littré èk-sfo-li-a-sion, Hatzfeld èks-fò-lyà-syon (adding that in verse -li-à si-on prevails); (*estouffade*) Littré è-stou-fa-d', Hatzfeld ès'-tou-fad', etc.

The appearance of a new and improved edition of Maruffi's 'Piccolo Manuale di Metrica Italiana' allows an opportunity to call attention to the little book as probably the best short, scholarly, and sensible treatise on Italian metrics. The unphilological reader can understand it, and the advanced student will be glad to see and profit by a work on the subject so thorough and yet so succinct. It is also worth while to notice with regret, if not with shame, that there is no account in our own language of English metrics that serves a similar purpose and can meet with equal praise.

The second part of the fourth volume of D'Ancona and Bacci's 'Manuale della Letteratura Italiana' (Florence: Barbèra) deals exclusively with the minor writers of the eighteenth century. If the general scale be not changed, the whole work will be completed in another volume. In this field also we have nothing in English dealing with English literature on a like scale and equally well done. Ward's 'English Poets,' deservedly so popular as an anthology for the library and as a textbook for the class-room, comes nearest to it, but that covers only the poetry, and the introductions and comments are more concerned with literary criticism than with literary history.

The March Library Bulletin of Cornell University records the gift of a remarkably rich and extensive Spinoza collection, thought to be the largest in existence, from ex-President White; some two hundred volumes of works on Romance philology, from Prof. Crane; and such additions to Prof. Willard Fiske's Dante collection as to bring it up to nearly 3,000 volumes, and to constitute it "undoubtedly the richest outside of Italy." The Library has just issued a catalogue of Prof. Fiske's "Rhæto-Romanic [Romaunsch] Collection," gathered rapidly by the donor three years ago in the Tyrol. It fills thirty-two pages in double columns, and the collection, which has a curious linguistic interest, probably has no rival in completeness.

That part of the Report of the National Museum for 1892 which relates to Japanese Woodcutting and Woodcut Printing has just been issued separately from the Government Printing-Office. The author is Mr. T. Tokuno, chief of the bureau of engraving and printing of the ministry of finance at Tokio, and his account has been edited by Mr. S. R. Koehler, curator of the section of Graphic Arts. It accompanied a gift to the Museum of a complete outfit of tools and materials, together with express illustrations which are here reproduced and are very curious. But one graver, always of the same pattern and size, is used for coarse work or the finest. It is held very much in the way shown in Jost Amman's 'Book of Trades,' 1568. Modern cutting is much shallower than the ancient, as with us. The cherry is the favorite wood, and the engraving is on the plank side. The ink is water-color, and the printing extraordinarily rapid.

A hint of future extension of teaching in our public schools is contained in the current annual report of the school committee of Cambridge, Mass. For geographical instruction with the aid of the lantern, Prof. W. M. Davis supplies a list of 126 slides, which will be furnished at fifty cents through Mr. E. E. Howell, 612 Seventeenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C. The significance of each scene portrayed is described by Prof. Davis, who has drawn upon the great collection of photographs in the geological department of Harvard University. In time, doubtless, the lantern will form as much a part of the school equipment as the blackboard. The list has been printed separately.

Partisans of the adoption of the referendum

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may be referred to Rhode Island's primitive experimenting (1647-1664) with that clumsy form of legislation, as described by Mr. Sidney S. Rider in his Providence *Book Notes* for May 5.

M. Homolle, writing from Athens, April 25, announces the recent discovery at Delphi of what may prove to be the prototypes of the Parthenon frieze as well as the porch of the Caryatides. One of these is a caryatid belonging to the end of the sixth century, resembling the archaic female statues of the Acropolis, but superior in style, executed by an Attic artist and possibly designed for the temple of Apollo. It is a preliminary sketch of the maidens of the Erechtheum. Another discovery of even greater interest consists of portions of a frieze representing a procession of chariots and of horsemen, and a charming group of three seated goddesses who converse together, and regard with curiosity some spectacle to which one of them naïvely directs the attention of her neighbor. All this recalls the composition of the Parthenon frieze, and was probably its forerunner and inspirer. If so, we should have another instance of the permanence of type and tradition which is so characteristic of Greek art. A link of great importance in the history of art will also be supplied by the remains of the "Treasury of the Athenians," which M. Homolle describes as a masterpiece of archaic architecture and sculpture, and would date *circa* 490–480 B. C.

The island of New Mecklenburg, one of the Bismarck Archipelago to the east of New Guinea, has recently been visited by Count Pfeil, who gives an interesting account of the natives in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for April. His explorations were confined to the central portion of the island, the northern and southern parts being still inaccessible on account of the hostility of the natives to strangers. As it was, his party was attacked and two of his attendants were killed and eaten. Though inveterate cannibals, the natives are not pure savages, but have some conception of a supreme deity and believe in a future life, a certain island off the coast being regarded as the home of the dead, whence they sometimes return and bring misfortune upon their relatives. While the bodies of their enemies are eaten, their own dead are burned. The more costly the funeral pyre, the greater is the consequence of the individual, and many prepare the wood for this purpose during their lifetimes. The hopelessly sick are burned alive with their own consent. Great skill and taste are shown in wood-carving. Count Pfeil saw some pieces which were remarkable both for the delicacy of the carving (it was like lace-work) and for the fact that it represented a bird of paradise and a monkey, neither of which creatures is known to exist on the island. The weapons consist of axes, which the natives handle with great dexterity, and spears. These are decorated with the arm bone of a slain enemy, but, failing this, an arm is carved in the wood. With their drums they are able to send messages from one village to another, having "a whole Morse alphabet of drum beats." Adultery is punished with the death of the woman, as is her marriage with a person of the same caste, the natives being divided into two castes. They are keen traders.

The perfection of cartographic work is illustrated in a large sheet of the Oetzthal and Stubai in the Austrian Alps, one of a series of five sheets of that mountainous district in publication by Giesecke and Devrient of Leipzig for the Austrian Alpine Club. The map has been drawn by Simon, the Swiss expert engineer-artist by whom the celebrated model of the Jungfrau district was constructed. The base of the map is the Austrian army survey; but Simon has revised the whole district, taking more than seven hundred photographs as an aid to the correct representation of details. In its published form, the sheet is a model of clearness, both in its expression of relief by shading and contours and in its names and other culture marks. The combination of contours, hachures, and shading is far superior to any one of these methods of topographic representation alone. In illustration of the minuteness to which the map is carried, mention may be made of the crevasses of the various glaciers, whose attitude is correctly portrayed. As a map for Alpine excursions and as an ideal towards which our mapmakers may press forward, this sheet has our highest recommendation.

The sixth session of the International Geological Congress will be held this year at Zurich, Switzerland, from August 29 to September 2. A number of excursions under competent guidance of local geologists will be offered both before and after the session; a guide-book descriptive of the various routes may be had for ten francs. Subscription of members is fixed at twenty-five francs, to be paid to C. Escher-Hess, treasurer, Zurich. The opportunity afforded by the congress for vacation excursions, profitable in seeing men as well as places, should not be lost by our professors of geology.

—The *Century* for June has something of interest on several reforms at present discussed. Dr. Albert Shaw writes of the government of German cities, preceding his account by statistics which show that the growth of almost all the large cities of the empire during the last two decades has exceeded both in area and population the growth of American cities of corresponding size during the same period, thus anticipating and nullifying the conventional apology for our failures in municipal government. There is much, of course, in the German systems that is complicated, unnecessary, and inapplicable to our conditions, but there is much also that we could adopt with infinite benefit to ourselves, notably their insistence on fitness and capacity in applicants for office. Dr. Shaw points out that German municipal salaries are small, citing as an example the mayor of Berlin with his 30,000 marks ($7,500) a year. He omits to add, however, that this sum represents in Germany a great deal more, nearly double what it does with us, so that in reality the mayor of Berlin is better paid than the mayor of New York, and his term of office is twelve years. In line with this paper is the open letter on an honest election machine, as run by the "Volunteer Electoral League" of Montreal, an organization of young men intent on securing good government for their city. A collection of opinions from ex-ministers of the United States on the consular service and the spoils system is a valuable addition to the subject. Among the literary articles, the description of the mother of Ivan Turgeneff by Prof. Boyesen will especially interest those who are inclined to accept Lombroso's theory of genius.

—The *Atlantic* will likewise attract those interested in the municipal and educational agitations of the hour. Dr. Shaw appears in these pages also with an account of Hamburg's new sanitary impulse, which is the result of the cholera visitation of 1892. With characteristic German thoroughness, the authorities of the afflicted city have gone to the root of their trouble, and have introduced a hygienic system that is likely to prove a model for the rest of the world. Under the head of American Railways and American Cities, Mr. Henry J. Fletcher endeavors to trace a connection between railway discrimination and the growth of the large terminal cities at the expense of the smaller towns and rural districts along the line. The scope of the Normal School is the subject of a paper by Mr. M. V. O'Shea, who defines its present and its ideal functions with a sympathetic pen. The literary attraction of the number is the contribution of Sir Edward Strachey, "Some Conversations and Letters of Thomas Carlyle," which reveal the rugged genius in the pleasant light of friendly intercourse. There is a good deal of the great man's peculiar self in these intimate communications, and the constant complaints about his own and his wife's physical ailments that run through them remind one oddly of the hypochondriacal tone of George Eliot's letters. The end of Tortoni's, the famous restaurant which closed its doors about a year ago, furnishes Mr. Stoddard Dewey with the theme for a good old-fashioned article in *Spectator* style—much gossip about the *beau monde*, some kindly criticism, a touch of satire, and an apt Latin quotation at the end.

—*Scribner's* opens with an historical essay on Maximilian and Mexico, by Mr. John Heard, jr., who bases his article on documents, recently made accessible, which have thrown light on many of the details of that involved and tragic episode. The character of the nominal protagonist in this drama, Maximilian, is drawn with unsparing truth. Like Charles I., he seems to have been able to do but one thing successfully, namely, to die. Under the ornamental title, "The Story of a Beautiful Thing," Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett writes an equally ornamental but not very clear account of a London charity, the Invalid Children's Aid Association. In these days of organized charities, one expects such descriptions to be business-like, adequately informing, and not too pathetic. "The Dog" is the subject of a paper by Mr. N. S. Shaler, who denies the theory of canine descent through the wolf, and maintains that the present animal is derived from ancestors as distinctly canine, which in the wild state have long since become extinct. In regard to the breeding of dogs, he deplores what thoughtful critics of the annual dog-shows have already remarked, and that is the tendency of breeders to substitute the symbol of a desired quality for the quality itself in their culture of the animal. A certain shape of the nose, or width of chest, or peculiarities of coloring, are desired, and they breed towards them extrinsically, without any attempt to develop in the animal the qualities of which these external features are but the sign. Of course, this is in part inevitable, owing to the diminishing use of dogs in the various ways in which formerly their special characteristics were of practical value.

—*Harper's* gives first place to an article on Philadelphia by Mr. Charles Belmont Davis, who presents the Quaker City from the social point of view that obtains in the aristocratic old town south of Market Street. All that portion north of this thoroughfare has, we are told, no history. It is perhaps impossible to convey an adequate idea of a great city in the narrow compass of a magazine article, but to the majority of people Philadelphia means something more and something other than the place here described. In "Memories of Wendell Phillips" Mr. George W. Smalley gives a

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spirited and truthful description of some of the stirring scenes in Boston during the winter of 1860-'61, when the famous orator was in greater peril from mob violence than at any period in his career as an abolitionist. Mr. Smalley seems to intimate that he is engaged upon a fuller account of his subject. Another journalist, Mr. de Blowitz, is among the contributors for the month, with an essay on French diplomacy under the Third Republic, which gives a good general idea of the present personnel of the service. Mr. Alfred Parsons, the artist, writes of and illustrates profusely the Japanese spring. There is the usual amount of fiction, Du Maurier's "Trilby" still continuing to be the *pièce de résistance* in this department.

—The third Romanes lecture was given on May 2 in the Sheldonian Theatre by Prof. Weismann, who had been courteously provided with a D.C.L. gown by decree of the University an hour or two before his lecture began. His subject was the one with which his name is so conspicuously associated, but he gave no popular survey of the whole ground. He addressed himself to a careful and somewhat minute consideration of a portion of the evidence supporting his own view that characters acquired during the lifetime of a living being are not inherited by the offspring, saying in one of his more daring periods that there was about as much support in scientific evidence for the contrary view as there was for maintaining that the sun revolved around the earth. Discussing the characteristics of social insects—bees, termites, and ants—he argued in the case of bees that there is but one kind of egg, while the individuals produced are of three kinds, queens, female workers, and drones. Unfertilized eggs produce males, fertilized eggs produce female grubs, and of these only the well-fed become queens, the others becoming workers (imperfect females). Here an external cause, abundant food, would appear to determine the character of the adult, and this character would appear to be transmitted by inheritance. But the female workers are sterile and cannot transmit anything, and therefore the capacity for change according to the amount and quality of food obtained must inhere in the race. House flies, the lecturer showed, are not affected by diet in any analogous fashion. Half-starved maggots produce smaller flies, but these are quite as fertile as larger ones whose larvæ had lived in abundance. Confronting the two cases, Dr. Weismann argued that it is the different nature of the germ-plasm of an organism which determines the characters of the adult, and he maintained that external influences acted only as stimuli by which latent powers in the germ are called forth. Hence the external conditions which appear to determine characters are not in any sense a true *causa efficiens*, but merely a necessary condition for the appearance of that which is inherent in the organism at some stage of development. The lecturer ended with the conclusion that the Lamarckian explanation of evolution fails when applied to these cases of so-called "neuter" insects, as it has failed before when offered as an explanation of other biological problems.

—Many people, and especially those who have lately been reading M. Édouard Grénier's 'Souvenirs,' or have at hand M. Émile Deschanel's new book on Lamartine, will hear with sympathetic interest of the recent death at Paris of the poet's faithful and devoted niece. She is a principal figure in Deschanel's eloquent last chapter, "Les travaux forcés de l'honneur." Everybody knows of Lamartine's long struggle with the debts by which he found himself encompassed on his retirement from power. His case was even more pathetic than Scott's, since he lacked Scott's indomitable soul. Hopeless and sick with chagrin, he lived at the châlet of Passy which the city of Paris had granted for his use, and kept up the long struggle, which never was crowned with success. During these years his chief support lay in the devotion of his wife and his niece. In 1863 the niece was left to bear the burden alone, which she sustained with heroic piety and tenderness till the death of the poet in 1869. After his death she was obliged to give up the châlet, in lieu of which the city gave her a yearly stipend of 12,000 francs. In the years 1873, 1874, and 1875, she published the five volumes of Lamartine's correspondence. Mlle. Valentine de Lamartine, who early in life took the name of her uncle, was a daughter of Mme. de Cessia, one of the five sisters of the poet. She was sixty-three years of age at the time of her death, on May 16. She leaves many important papers and documents that were in her possession—notably the manuscripts of 'Jocelyn' and of the 'Girondins.'

—It is impossible within reasonable limits to give any adequate idea of the multitude and the interest of the subjects treated in the five bulky volumes bearing the general title of 'The Industries of Russia,' which the Russian Government prepared for the Chicago Exposition. They have come late to hand, but they will long remain a very valuable source of statistical and other information relating to Russian manufactures, mining industries, products, trade, and so forth. In fact, they are the only authoritative source of information available, in English, on many points. The haste with which they were necessarily prepared rendered mistakes inevitable, but it is safe to say that many people will learn from these volumes for the first time what wealth of natural resources and energy and industry vast Russia possesses. Two volumes are devoted to "Manufactures and Trade," and one volume each to "Agriculture and Forestry," "Mining and Metallurgy," and "Siberia and the Great Siberian Railway." The editing of the work in Russian was intrusted to the celebrated chemist Prof. D. I. Mendeléeff of the University of St. Petersburg. The editor of the English version is the American Consul-General, Mr. J. M. Crawford. Perhaps the most astonishing feature of this huge compilation, containing more than 1,600 large octavo pages, is the fact that the entire English version was set up and printed by Russians who knew not a word of the language in which they were working. Naturally, the abundance of technical terms with which every page bristles presented immense difficulty to the translators. However, an expert in any of the departments treated could readily make the corrections requisite for a profitable use of the facts therein set forth. The peculiarities of English are such as might have been expected from Russians turning their own language into another tongue, or from English people unused to translating, or so long resident in Russia as to have partially lost idiomatic control of their native tongue. The typographical errors are very few.

—The article on each branch of industry has been prepared by a specialist, and wherever maps and charts will help to a comprehension of the matter, they have been provided. Thus, there are maps showing the route of the Siberian railway, with the rejected routes, the location of the gold, silver, platinum, and other mines, and the amounts taken from them, and the railway connections all over Russia and Siberia, though the volume devoted to a "Review of the Railway and Steamboat Lines of the Empire," mentioned in the preface, has not been received. There are maps of atmospheric precipitation, of the principal soils in the black-loam region, of the density of population, of the area of cultivated lands in proportion to the whole surface for each government, a similar map of the proportion of forests; another which shows the ownership of land by the government, the peasants and private individuals; one which shows the distribution of different kinds of land, one which illustrates fertilizing, others for the area under rye, millet, Indian corn, and spelt, the prevailing crops, the average yield of rye, and of spring wheat, oats, and potatoes, the export of the principal cereals, in five-year periods; variations in price of the different cereals; the total number of cattle, with the distribution of large and small live stock, and many other maps and diagrams, colored and uncolored. The Russians have thoughtfully provided for each volume tables of weights and measures, with the equivalents in the English and the metric systems, and each article begins with an instructive historical sketch of the industry under consideration, supplementary to the more extensive historical sketch that introduces each volume. The volume which treats of Siberian industries, trade, railway, and mineral wealth is of particular interest, in view of the probable close connection with our country, and the development of its wealth by Americans when the completion of the trans-Siberian railway shall have rendered such development possible and profitable. Many people will, no doubt, be surprised to learn that in 1766 "a mining engineer, Polsounov, erected the first steam-acting blowing engine for blast furnaces at the Barnaoul works. Polzounov may justly be called the forerunner of Watt. In the Altai [Mountains] also the first experiment of laying down a tram-line was made in 1817, for transporting the ore from the Zmeinogorsk mine and the Zmeevsk works, along a distance of two and one-half versts." Those who have the patience and courage to attack these formidable volumes will be rewarded, and will agree with the director of the Department of Trade and Manufacture, who says in his preface that, "however successful the choice of exhibits [at Chicago] may be, they cannot convey an adequate idea of the productive forces of the empire and its industrial development," and will feel grateful to the Minister of Finance, Mr. S. I. Vitte, for having supplied the deficiency as far as was possible with this impressive survey. The Putnams market the volumes in this country.

LORD WOLSELEY'S MARLBOROUGH.

The Life of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough: to the Accession of Queen Anne. By General Viscount Wolseley, K.P. Illustrated. Vols. I. and II. London: Richard Bentley & Son; New York: Longmans. 1894.

A LIFE of Marlborough by a general himself so distinguished as Lord Wolseley cannot fail to be full of interest. Marlborough, we suppose, would be generally allowed to be the first of British soldiers. If his reputation as a general does not vie in brilliancy with those of the most renowned commanders in history,

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Voltaire could say of him with literal truth that he never fought a battle which he did not gain, besiege a place which he did not win, or undertake an operation which did not prove successful. He was not a scientifically trained soldier, and was perhaps on that account somewhat underrated by William, who, while he lacked military genius, was master of the science of war. Strong sense and great practical sagacity were, as the Duke of Wellington said, Marlborough's gifts. To these he added the serenest intrepidity and the most imperturbable self-possession. His qualities as a military diplomatist seconded his strategy, and were not less indispensable to the generalissimo of a discordant and fractious coalition. No general ever more completely clipped the wings of Victory. This was the more remarkable because he commanded armies made up of motley materials, and accustomed to defeat, against the armies accustomed to defeating them. The confidence with which he attacked at Blenheim, and the decisiveness of the result, are among the most striking things in military history. The result of his last battle, Malplaquet, was less decisive, though the fault was not his, but that of his allies. Yet his career of conquest was not arrested: he afterwards forced the lines of Bouchain; and had not Mistress Abigail crept, in the interest of the Jacobites, to the ear of the fatuous Anne and wrought his fall, with that of the patriotic party, it is not impossible that he might have entered Paris, and it is morally certain that he would have given the French monarchy such a blow as could hardly have failed to alter the course of history.

Macaulay has failed, but Lord Wolseley does not fail, to appreciate the importance of the part played by Marlborough in the Revolution of 1688. James had an army on foot strong enough to cope with the Dutch invader had it remained true to him. And apparently it might have remained true but for the secession of Marlborough. Marlborough and his wife also rendered William a great service by drawing over to him the Princess Anne. James, in his agony of rage, cried, "I must make examples, Churchill above all; Churchill whom I raised so high. He, and he alone, has done all this. He has corrupted my army. He has corrupted my child. He would have put me into the hands of the Prince of Orange but for God's special providence." The last assertion was a mistake. The majestic intriguer would never have been guilty of such an indecorum.

In these two volumes Lord Wolseley gets only to the death of William III. and the eve of the war of succession. The day of Marlborough's glory, the theme on which Lord Wolseley would be most interesting, is yet to come. We have here nothing more in the military way than the drooping laurels of Sedgemoor, the melancholy trophies of an Irish campaign, and displays of ability in subordinate command on the Continent, which, however, were the earnest of greater things to come. The day which is not that of Marlborough's glory, the sun of which breaks fitfully through dark clouds of dishonor, is the present subject, and in dealing with it the impartiality of the biographer is sorely tried. It is not true, however, that, as some of Lord Wolseley's critics seem to have thought, he whitewashes his hero. Again and again he speaks of Marlborough's conduct in language of the strongest reprobation; and in some cases where we should ourselves hesitate to condemn. He is right in making allowance for the moral standard of the age. Great allowance assuredly must be made for the moral standard of the age in the case of a poor, extremely handsome, and most fascinating youth, thrown among the men and women of the court of Charles II. In respect of social morality, the worst thing, perhaps, that can be said of Marlborough is, that he accepted the patronage of James when James had seduced his sister. Licentious intercourse with women probably never presented itself to his mind as wrong. To be caught in Lady Castlemaine's bed-chamber would be regarded by the circle in which he lived as a feather in his social cap. That he was "kept" by a woman is a flourish of Macaulay's pen. He was so far better than his companions that he did not drink or gamble. Nor, if in that slough of public corruption he shared illicit gains, was he so much to blame as he would be if he did the same thing now. The foulest of all illicit gains, that which was made by the traffic in prisoners after the suppression of Monmouth's rebellion, apparently he did not share. That he was avaricious is undeniable. So, unfortunately, was the wife of his bosom. But Macaulay has exaggerated this feature of Marlborough's mixed character, as he exaggerates every feature of every mixed character, for the purpose of his chiaroscuro. It is amusing to see how the great historical rhetorician makes everything work into his theory. The young adventurer whose beauty, charm of manner, and social reputation would have won for him the hand of the richest heiress of the court, marries a penniless girl for love. "He must have been very desperately in love," says Macaulay, "not to marry for money." Of course he was, and that he should have been so desperately in love with a penniless beauty proves that money, though he coveted it, was not mistress of his soul. So when Macaulay says that Sarah was "the one human being who was fervently loved by that cold heart," we must ask what proof better than fervent love there can be that the heart is not cold.

Marlborough chose his wife for her beauty, which matched his own; but when her beauty faded, his love did not lose its warmth. His devotion to her remained to the end of his life as passionate as it had been on their wedding-day. Nor was her love of him less, though the violence of her temper gave him many a bitter hour and probably had not a little to do with his worst departure from the path of honor; for her disappointment at her position under William and Mary probably helped to draw him into his intrigues with the exiled King. When she was his widow and a ducal suitor sought her hand, her answer was that not even if she were still young enough for marriage would she allow any man to share a heart which had once belonged to the Duke of Marlborough. One day, in a fit of rage, she cut off the beautiful tresses which were Marlborough's delight, and threw them where he would be likely to light upon them. He did light upon them, and at his death they were found laid up among the cherished treasures of the victor of Blenheim. Macaulay might let alone this redeeming story of affection amidst all the impurity and roguery of the age.

The three great counts in the indictment against Marlborough's character are his desertion of his patron James II., his correspondence with James while he was in the service of William, and his betrayal of the Brest expedition. In the first of these cases his conduct was cynical and savored of the generation of Shaftesbury and Sunderland; but we cannot say that it was vile. James had conferred favors on him, but he, at the battle of Sedgemoor, in which his capacity supplied the defects of the incapable Feversham, had rendered most important service to James. So far they were quits. It may be added that the favors of a king, being conferred at the public expense, can hardly be held to cancel the claims of public duty. To say nothing of constitutional principle, for which Marlborough, who, if he was anything except a soldier, was a courtier, probably cared little, it was impossible for a man of his sound sense to adhere to such a fool as James and such fanatics as James's priestly guides in their fatuous and ruinous career. Whatever of patriotism there might be in Marlborough would revolt against subserviency to France. Nor can we blame him for having masked his design from the king, though, as he was in immediate attendance upon James's person, the process involved profound deception. It would have been absurd to incur suspicion which would have exposed him to arrest. It does not seem that James had taken him into his political councils, while, by refusing to turn Roman Catholic, Marlborough had given practical notice of his independence.

Lord Wolseley, looking at the matter from a military point of view, discusses the charge which might have been brought against Marlborough of desertion. But in this case the military question was lost in the political necessity. We should no more think of arraigning Marlborough as a deserter for going over to William than we should think of arraigning him as a horse-stealer if he had ridden off on a regimental horse. In his letter of explanation to James he states his motive to have been his attachment to the Protestant religion. It is difficult to believe that religion was an influence paramount with so thorough a man of the world, and we are inclined, in Marlborough's case, as in those of many ardent Protestants of the period, to take Protestantism in a political sense. Yet Marlborough seems not only to have been a firm believer in Providence, but to have sincerely valued the ordinances, at least, of religion. He spent a part of the night before Blenheim in prayer, and always before going into battle received the sacrament. He had, however, another motive for secession which both Macaulay and Lord Wolseley have failed to notice. His wife had by this time acquired a complete ascendancy over the feeble mind of the Princess Anne, whose favor, if she became Queen, opened a splendid vista to his ambition, while her chance of succession to the crown, otherwise than by a revolution, was extinguished by the birth of a son to James II. In his subsequent double dealings it was suspected by the Jacobites, at least, that his real object was, not to restore James, but to get rid both of William and James, and place Anne, as a Protestant and an Englishwoman, on the vacant throne.

Marlborough's secret correspondence with the Court of St. Germain, when he was in the service of William, can neither be defended nor excused without disloyalty to morality and honor. His motives on any hypothesis were manifestly personal, not public. He and his wife had not gained so much by the Revolution as they had expected. He wished to make himself safe in the event of a restoration of the exiled dynasty, which the unpopularity of the foreign deliverer seemed at one time to portend. If he had the more ambitious aim which the Jacobites suspected, that aim still was purely personal. The only palliations of his conduct are the number of his associates in infamy and the low standard of public mo-

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rality in that age. That he should have been employed again after the discovery of his treachery is the highest proof of William's magnanimity and of his noble preference of the public service to his own interest and feelings. Too true, though couched in rugged verse, was the judgment of Defoe:

"We blame the King that he relies too much
On strangers, Germans, Huguenots, and Dutch,
And seldom does his great affairs of state
To English councillors communicate.
The fact might very well be answered thus:
He has so often been betrayed by us,
He must have been a madman to rely
On English gentlemen's fidelity.
For (laying other arguments aside),
This thought might mortify our English pride,
That foreigners have faithfully obeyed him,
And none but Englishmen have e'er betrayed him."

Worst of all is the betrayal to the French Government by a British soldier of the intended attack on Brest, which led to the failure of the expedition and the death of its gallant chief. Lord Wolseley pleads that Marlborough was not really responsible for the disaster because he was not the first to give the information. It appears, however, that he gave it as soon as he knew the destination of the force.

"It is but this day that it came to my knowledg what now I send you; which is that the Bomb Vessells and the twelve regiments now encamped at Portsmouth, together with the two Marine Regiments, are to be commanded by Talmach, and are designed to burn the harbour of Brest, and to destroy the men of war there; this would be great advantage to England, but no consideration can, or ever shall hinder me from letting you know what I think may be for your service, so you may make what use you think best of this intelligence, which you may depend upon as exactly true" (vol. ii., p. 313).

Suppose Marlborough had been anticipated by another traitor, how much would that do to purge his honor? If two officers in Lord Wolseley's army had betrayed to the enemy his plan of attack at Tel el-Kebir, would he not have sent them both before a court-martial, though the information of the second might have happened to come too late? Even if we suppose Marlborough to have known that the information given by him would come too late, and by sending it he would only gain a false credit for infamy, would this exonerate him or even much diminish his turpitude in the eyes of any man of honor? Nothing can efface this stain; apologists only call attention to its blackness. They had better let it alone and allow it to be lost, as far as possible, in the blaze of Marlborough's glory.

An infinitely less serious charge is that of illiteracy. Against this Lord Wolseley would fain defend his hero. The facts, we fear, are against him. Here is one of Marlborough's letters to Blaythwait, secretary of war:

"For Mr. Blaythwait, Secretary att War, att his house neer the Horse Guard, London.—Maestrich, May 25th.—SIR.—I have not heard from [you] sense I left England, which I hope is ocationed by your not knowing how to direct your's to me. If you will call at my lodgings, my wife will lett you have the same direction she has for writing. I desier you will constantly lett me have what passes in Ireland. I must desier you will give the enclosed to my Lord Portland, there being own in it for the King. I desier you would send me over a copie of the oath that Monsieur Schonberg gave to the officers about ther never taking nor giving money for ther employment, because I am resolved to give the same oath here. I goe to-moroe for Boldnecke, and from thence to some other guarisons, to draw out six regiments, the other four not yett being ready to march.—I am, sir, your friend and servant, MARLBOROUGH."

The age was one of unsettled orthography no doubt, but not of such spelling as this amongst tolerably educated men.

Soldiers and men of action generally, when they take up the pen at all, usually write with verve and freshness. Cæsar's Commentaries are the type of military style. The vigor and animation of Lord Wolseley's style are such that we can easily overlook a few literary slips which have been pointed out by critics. Whenever war is his theme we feel that he is a master of it, that his descriptions are sure to be true, and that his ardor, when he speaks to us of the raptures of the battle, is unfeigned. But of these excellences we shall get the full benefit only when we come to the series of grand campaigns and stirring battle-pieces with which the next volume will open.

RECENT POETRY.

LONDON is prolific, of late, in a type of poetic genius for which the following recipe has lately been given in *Truth*: "Half educate a vain youth at Oxford; let his hair grow; dip him into erotic French literature; add one idea; chop it small; give a grotesque name; then serve up as a rival to Milton, Sheridan, and Shakspere." The *Athenæum*, usually well informed, though speaking lately of "the two thinkers, Thoreau and Walden," goes still further, and remarks of this flock of youthful bards in London that they are constantly discovering one another. The most questionable feature of their fame, however, is not this mutual discovery, but the very insecure basis on which it is apt to rest. The men brought to light are not suffered to stand upon their poetic work alone, but appear in the light of chromo-poets, who must have some private romance to give them color; it is urged in their behalf that they have begged about the streets, that they have become monks, that they have been more or less insane, that they have spent some years in a hospital. A great many persons have lost their wits without poetic madness, and have wasted their substance without any lofty soarings; so that the stress laid on such things awakens suspicion, like the recurring burglaries which remind a doubting world that some second-rate actress has diamonds to lose. The worst result is that, under these beguiling influences, we Americans have reverted for a season to that meek and deferential attitude from which Emerson and Hawthorne for a time rescued us. Any one thus advertised in London finds at once somebody to lecture about him in American universities; and whole cities are temporarily modified by his influence.

Those who lament what they find discouraging in the present aspect of English poetry may well find some comfort in the thought that, half a century ago, there was just the same solicitude. John Sterling, himself a poet of fine and elevated type, wrote thus in 1841: "It is true, no doubt, that what new poetry we have is little cared for; but also true that there is wonderfully little deserving any honor. Compare our present state with twenty years ago, when Wordsworth, Byron, Shelley, Keats, and Scott, the novelist, were all vigorously productive." Yet Tennyson and Browning were already rising to the zenith, and Swinburne, Rossetti, and Morris—to speak of London bards alone—were yet to come. Between that time and this, what stars and starlets have risen and set. Who now remembers the Shaksperian quality that was found or fancied in Alexander Smith; or how Sainte-Beuve wrote of Edmund J. Armstrong, "His young star will continue to shine before the eyes of all who study English poetry"? When Coventry Patmore comes forward to discover Francis Thompson, it is the rediscovery of Coventry Patmore that excites surprise; he was generally supposed to have died long since, like his transitory fame. The very complaints we make against the current poetic whims are much like those which were made against the earlier ones. The dedication of a serious volume "To Sissie Le Gallienne" is not much sillier than Tennyson's "O, Darling room, my heart's delight," which was wisely suppressed in later editions. The "affected archaism" which Lord Houghton admitted to be a defect in Leigh Hunt and his friends is conspicuous on every page of William Morris, not to speak of the younglings, and is manifest to the eye in the imprints of the latest poet-publishers, Mathews & Lane.

Dr. Richard Garnett, more than most Englishmen, retains health and vigor, even amid this phase of sadness. In his 'Poems' (London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day) he has sometimes a touch worthy of Shelley, as in this (p. 18):

EVEN-STAR.

First-born and final relic of the night,
I dwell aloof in dim immensity;
The gray sky sparkles with my fairy light;
I mix among the dancers of the sea;
Yet stoop not from the throne I must retain
High o'er the silver sources of the rain.

Vicissitude I know not, nor can know,
Yet much discern strewed everywhere around;
The ever-stirring race of men below
Much do I watch, and wish I were not bound
The chainless captive of this lonely spot,
Where light-winged Mutability is not.

I see great cities rise, which being hoar
Are slowly rendered into dust again,
And roaring billows preying on the shore;
And virgin isles ascending from the main;
The passing wave of the perpetual river;
And men depart, and man remaining ever.

The upturned eyes of many a mortal maid
Glass me in gathering tears, soon kissed away;
Then walks she for a space, and then is laid
Swelling the bosom of the quiet clay.
I muse what this all-kindling Love may be,
And what this Death that never comes to me.

Though Dr. Garnett's book bears the imprint "London and Boston," yet, inasmuch as the printing was done abroad, we suppose that there is no copyright on the publication. Certainly we should all wish to see the international copyright law strained a little, if necessary, for the benefit of an author who writes a sonnet like the following (p. 132):

TO AMERICA.

[After reading some ungenerous criticisms.]

What though thy Muse the singer's art essay
With lip now over-loud, now over-low?
'Tis but the augury that makes her so
Of the high things she hath in charge to say.
How shall the glantess of gold and clay,
Girt with two oceans, crowned with Arctic snow,
Sandalled with shining seas of Mexico,
Be pared to trim proportion in a day?
Thou art too great! Thy million-billowed surge
Of life bewilders speech, as shoreless sea
Confounds the ranging eye from verge to verge
With mazy strife or smooth immensity.
Not soon or easily shall hence emerge
A Homer or a Shakspere worthy thee.

The publications of the young firm of Stone & Kimball (Cambridge and Chicago) are so attractive as to merit especial commendation and in fact to form a new era in the external dress of American poetry. There is visible a frank imitation of Mathews & Lane; but, after all, it is only superficial, and the selection of authors is carefully made. Gilbert Parker's 'A Lover's Diary' is disappointing; indeed, a whole book of sonnets is always so—sonnets should be the occasional spice of a volume, not its main repast. These sonnets, moreover, are in the irregular Shaksperian form, while modern taste has trained itself to the Italian sequence of rhymes. Mr. Hugh McCulloch, jr., in 'The Quest of Heracles, and Other Poems,' has risked his fate upon the Greek legend, a thing now so overdone that it needs the vigor of Michael Field to save it from the charge of languor. In some of his lyrics, as "A Requiem," we have a fresher and more varied charm. 'When Hearts are Trumps,'

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by "Tom Hall," is full of excellent fooling, as piquant as the best work of the kind from London, and with more good nature. Mr. George Santayana also yields to the sonnet-indulgence, and his poems are almost always sad ('Sonnets, and Other Verses'); there is a distinct impression of immaturity, and yet of an underlying earnestness of feeling and imagination which imply a promise that is rare in a first volume. The closing and longer poem, "Lucifer," is an exceedingly strong and original study, not quite worked out.

Mr. Hamlin Garland's 'Prairie Songs' must carry a little disappointment to those who were struck with the fresh vigor and strong local coloring of his 'Main-travelled Roads,' and who regret that he—like all the type he represents, like Bret Harte and Joaquin Miller, for instance—apparently made his best mark at first, and shows no power of growth. These poems are full of valuable material, they carry the very flavor of the upturned furrow; yet the trace of Whitman and Miller is on them all, they are often strained and turgid and, so to speak, over-dressed. It is little that Mr. Garland says "fartherest" (p. 163), and says of the snow, "I saw it lay" (p. 162). These things are trifles—Emily Dickinson took far greater liberties with the Queen's or the President's English; but compare her poem on the "Blue Jay" with Mr. Garland's, and see which has the vigor and the grip. Mr. Garland even insults this bit of pure American life by one of the worst of Whitmanisms, the interlarding of foreign words, and calls the jay an "emigre," without an accent—whatever that may mean.

Mr. Grant Allen, who has put in a bid for second prizes in a good many directions, but without succeeding in any, now sends forth a volume of verse, not the "sweet Spenserian" of which we used to hear so much, but of sub-acid Spencerian, which is a very different thing. Were a poet to write of science, the men of science would hold him to a strict account as to the smallest laboratory precepts; but when a man of science—if Mr. Allen really counts among that class—writes poetry, he troubles himself very little about small points of art, and rhymes "kisses" with "tresses," "quarrel" with "coral," and "barter" with "Montmartre." Such blemishes occur freely in the volume called 'The Lower Slopes.' Comparing the verses about a moth, "Only an Insect," with Mr. Carman's fine and thoughtful poem on the same theme, one sees at a glance the difference between the poetic and unpoetic types of mind. The best thing in the book, its searching suggestion (p. 73) of the horrible realities lying beyond the gayeties of the Jardin Mabille, conveys a moral which has probably never yet been brought home to Mr. Allen—the extent, namely, to which he, and such as he, have laid the foundation for precisely those horrors by their persistent treatment of every woman as if she were only a tolerably intelligent kitten (p. 26):

> "For a man, he tries
> And he toils and sighs
> To be mighty wise
> And witty,
> But a dear little dame
> Has enough of fame
> If she wins the name
> Of pretty."

This he fortifies yet farther (p. 27) by the comforting and polygamous doctrine:

> "I hold that heart full poor that owns its boast
> To throb in tune with but one throbbing breast.
> Who numbers many friends, loves friendship most;
> Who numbers many loves, loves each love best."

After this, what remains but Mabille?

It is a question whether to take pleasure or pain in the fact that the most really enjoyable of all these contributions from Messrs. Stone & Kimball's young poets has for its birthplace neither England nor the United States, but that Canadian region, dumb until lately, but to whose rising literature we have more than once borne witness. Mr. Bliss Carman's use of his own early local coloring is at its best in 'Low Tide on Grand Pré,' and the breadth and mystery of that landscape of lonely distances and colossal ocean tides are fully rendered in his verse. He has that lyrical note and that power of imagination which lend to his poetry a haunting quality—a trait sure to secure a permanent charm beyond all mere wit and wisdom. It includes, of course, an ear for poetic names. The new localities he embalms for us—Blomidon, Arrochar, the Ardise hills, Martock, and Menalowan—are all names made for poets or by poets, it makes little difference which; but they are as valid and permanent, if rightly improved, as Tweed and Yarrow. The poem which, perhaps, strikes the deepest note is "Pulvis et Umbra," suggested by a gray moth coming in from seaward and leaving dust upon the poet's fingers. The most condensed in its vigor, with most of what Mr. Carman elsewhere calls "the valor of the North," is this pair of verses (p. 55):

> A SEA-CHILD.
>
> The lover of child Marjory
> Had one white hour of life brim-full;
> Now the old nurse, the rocking sea,
> Hath him to lull.
>
> The daughter of child Marjory
> Hath in her veins, to beat and run,
> The glad indomitable sea,
> The strong white sun.

One thing which leads to the belief that Mr. Carman's merits may be partly those of his early surroundings is the fact that Mr. Duncan C. Scott's 'The Magic House, and Other Poems' (Ottawa: Durie) shows some of the same fine qualities. He also reveals an exceptional dramatic faculty in the poem "At the Cedars"—a lumberman's tragedy—and turns to an exquisite mood of meditative thought and fine expression in his poem on "A Country Churchyard" (p. 26):

> "This is the acre of unfathomed rest:
> These stones, with weed and lichen bound, enclose
> No active grief, no uncompleted woes,
> But only finished work and harbored quest,
> And balm for ills;
> And the last gold that smote the ashen west
> Lies garnered here between the harvest hills."

It is in such volumes as Mr. Carman's, Mr. Scott's, and Mr. Santayana's that the hope of our cis-Atlantic poetic literature lies, for they differ from the young London poets in being unhackneyed, and from Mr. Garland and his kind in showing enough of cultivation to avoid that note of provincialism which still hangs around the whole school of dialect-writers. Dialect, like slang, can be endured as flavoring only—it soon grows wearisome if offered as food. Burns does not tire us, but Allan Ramsay does; James Whitcomb Riley can take us "back to Grigsby's station" with him, but when William Allen White tries the same key in "The Exodus of Elder Twiggs" it seems flat. Mr. White and Mr. Albert Bigelow Paine are joint authors of 'Rhymes by Two Friends' (Fort Scott, Kansas: Izor), of which a friend who writes the introduction says, that "they have in no way offended the Kansans' idea of poetry." This makes one feel that the nation is safe in their hands. Yet there is almost always in these defiant border books a note which betrays essential weakness, in the fine names they give their heroes and heroines; thus, in these 'Rhymes' the persons celebrated in the most serious poem are not called John and Susan but Gustave and Emilie. In somewhat the same way, Mrs. Julia Ditts Young, whose poems are not in any way objectionable, spoils their flavor from the outset by taking a motto from Stevenson, in which he speaks of "a nightingale in the sycamore" as a necessary part of poetic housekeeping. But the book is called 'Thistle-Down' (Buffalo: Paul), and do nightingales really sing in Buffalo? On the whole, we prefer a little dingy book like 'Skipped Stitches,' by Anne J. Granniss (Keene, N. H.: Darling), which is written, it appears, by an author who herself worked in a mill and knows what she means by "Songs and Burred Needles," though we do not. She at least offers no nightingale on the doorstep.

When we turn to the writings of more highly cultivated authors, we sometimes find that, as in the case of Mr. E. F. Fenollosa's 'East and West: The Discovery of America, and Other Poems' (Crowell), the experience of two continents has turned largely to effervescence in the brain. There is doubtless some thought behind them all, but the result is weariness to flesh and spirit. Certainly there is in them no such glut as the author deprecates (p. 42):

> "O dance of the dishes! O pulse of the purses!
> O whirlpool of wishes! O chaos of curses!
> O hybrid hypocrisy of high-bred democracy!
> O self-contradictions of pious convictions!
> O mental congestions of insoluble questions! —
> Are there no panaceas for a glut of ideas?"

Mosse MacDonald, whose name is new to us, in his 'Poems' (London: Innes), is, like most poets new or old, more enjoyable as he is least ambitious; more when he sings of maidens than when he discourses of Iona. A modern and spiritualized Herrick could scarcely do better than this (p. 37):

> "Virgins, laugh no more, but weep
> For Idonea, fall'n asleep:
> Winter winds have ceased to stir,
> All the world wears snow for her.
>
> "Cold, sad world, these saints so free
> Tarry little space in thee!
> Their true home is God's fair land,
> None can take them from His hand.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "Who this star of virgins lit
> He alone was worthy it;
> He has touched the sleeping maid,
> She has followed unafraid.
>
> "We will don the mail of light
> Each whom Love has made a Knight,
> Raising eyes, however dim,
> For Idonea, unto Him."

In Mr. Robert Bridges's 'Humours of the Court: A Comedy' (Macmillan), we find little that is comic and not much that is musical. Mr. Gleeson White's 'Book-Song' (New York: Armstrong) gleans after Mr. Brander Matthews, and is more miscellaneous; many people have written about books, producing verse which is hardly worth putting into books. It is this same waywardness which most damps the unusually high hopes otherwise to be entertained from the volume which has so arrested attention in London, 'Poems by Francis Thompson' (London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day). It is discouraging to open (p. 42) upon

> "Thy mists enclip
> Her steel-clear circuit illusions,
> Until it crust
> Rubiginous
> With the glorious gales of a glowing rust."

And yet Keats had sometimes dithyrambic whims like this; and certainly Mr. Thompson has far more in common with Keats than with "the mob of gentlemen who write with ease" in the current Franco-Cockney idiom of London verse. Mr. Thompson has wonderful phrasing, like Keats, exquisite fancies, high uplifts; and his love-making has a refined beauty which equals Rossetti at his best. Rossetti's summary of the beloved woman

> "Whose speech Truth knows not from her heart,
> Nor Love her body from her soul,"

is not carried to a point more high and exqui-

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site than when Thompson says of the object of his love (p. 9):

> "Whose body other ladies well might bear
> As soul—yea, which it profanation were
> For all but you to take as fleshly woof,
> Being spirit truest proof."

Again he says (p. 23):

> "All which makes other women noted fair,
> Unnoted would remain and overshone in her.
> How should I gauge what beauty is her dole
> Who cannot see her countenance for her soul,
> As birds see not the casement for the sky?
> And as 'tis check they prove its presence by,
> I know not of her body till I find
> My flight debarred the heaven of her mind."

These are glimpses of that fine style familiar to English poets in the seventeenth century, but now almost lost to sight; nor did that century produce anything finer. Yet perhaps it is not strange that the one poem in the volume which has been oftenest quoted is not among these subtleties, but brings to us Wordsworth —with a difference. It shows a range of gifts which makes Mr. Thompson an interesting, but not yet an altogether hopeful figure, since his impulses are wayward, like his life. This is the poem just mentioned, omitting some verses (p. 65):

DAISY.

> Where the thistle lifts a purple crown
> Six foot out of the turf,
> And the harebell shakes on the windy hill,
> O the breath of the distant surf!—
>
> The hills look over on the South,
> And Southward dreams the sea;
> And with the sea-breeze hand in hand
> Came innocence and she.
>
> Oh, there were flowers in Storrington
> On the turf and on the spray;
> But the sweetest flower on Sussex Hills
> Was the Daisy-flower that day.
>
> Her beauty smoothed earth's furrowed face!
> She gave me tokens three:—
> A look, a word of her winsome mouth,
> And a wild raspberry.
>
> She went her unremembering way,
> She went and left in me
> The pang of all the partings gone
> And partings yet to be.
>
> Still, still I seemed to see her, still
> Look up with soft replies,
> And take the berries with her hand,
> And the love with her lovely eyes.
>
> Nothing begins, and nothing ends
> That is not paid with moan;
> For we are born in others' pain
> And perish in our own.

Man and Woman: A Study of Human Secondary Sexual Characters. By Havelock Ellis. Illustrated. [Contemporary Science Series.] London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. 1894.

THAT tiresome little egotist, Marie Bashkirtseff, refused to claim for her sex an utopian equality with the opposite sex, "because there can be no equality between two such different beings as man and woman." Her grumbling arose from the fact that personally she was a woman, "whereas I have," she said, "only the skin of one." Mr. Ellis's comparative study makes havoc of accepted notions as to the difference between the sexes, and, while not destroying that difference, results on the whole in a great levelling of natural endowments. Man's boasted superiority in many particulars disappears, and excellences which he condescends to impute to woman are strangely shown to be rather his own property. Larger he is, and stronger, as a rule, but his skeleton is not always distinguishable from a woman's, and his pelvis tends to approximate hers. In measurements of the living body the surest sexual discrimination is in the girth of the female thigh. The male brain is universally heavier than the female, and upon this physiological fact much of man's lordship rests; but Mr. Ellis shows that, proportionately to the size of the rest of the organism, woman's brain is as heavy if not rather heavier. Stronger and brawnier as he is, she surpasses him in endurance of pain, bears amputations better, rallies more certainly from zymotic diseases, has greater longevity after the age of sixty-five.

On the other hand, the available evidence tends to show that men have a keener and more delicate sense of smell, are more sensitive to faint color, surpass women in rapidity and precision of movement, and are perhaps more deft in manipulation. Regarding the artistic impulse, "there is thus a certain justification of Schopenhauer's description of woman as the unæsthetic sex." In the moral sphere, man is by nature franker and more truthful. "The method of attaining results by ruses (common among all the weaker lower animals) is so habitual among women that, as Lombroso and Ferrero remark, in women deception is 'almost physiological' "; Mr. Ellis remarking, for his own part, that "it is inevitable, and results from the constitution of women, acting in the conditions under which they are generally placed." To the seven causes which these Italian authors assign for dissimulation, Mr. Ellis adds another, viz., compassion: "An exaggerated desire to avoid hurting or shocking others is one of the most frequent causes of minor dissimulations, and works more powerfully in women than in men." Finally, "the crimes of women are usually more marked by cruelty than those of men."

Mr. Ellis's method is purely scientific and not a little original, and is fortified by his well-known sociological researches. He candidly points out from time to time the slenderness of the basis of induction in a field where observation on a large scale is difficult and where much remains to be observed. He constantly refers for comparison to the infant on the one hand and the ape on the other, with a general collocation of woman with the infant, but by no means to her disparagement. "The young anthropoid is comparatively human in character, the adult ape is comparatively bestial in character"; and so "*Man starts in life with a still greater* portion of human or ultra-human endowment, and to a less extent falls from it in adult life, approaching more and more to the Ape." "We might say that the fœtal evolution which takes place sheltered from the world is in an abstractly upward direction, but that, after birth, all further development is merely a concrete adaptation to the environment, without regard to upward zoölogical movement." What woman illustrates, therefore, is not arrested development, but racial progress. "It is open to a man in a Pharisaic mood to thank God that his cranial type is far removed from the infantile. It is equally open to a woman in such a mood to be thankful that her cranial type does not approach the senile."

One can but admire the impartiality of Mr. Ellis's study, which is replete with curious physiological and psychological information, and which deserves to be read and reread by every thinking man and woman. The greater "affectability" of woman (*i. e.*, her readier responsiveness to stimuli psychic or physical) and the greater variational tendency in man—such are the two grand divisions he allows, for whatever they may be worth:

"We must regard genius as an organic congenital abnormality, . . . and in nearly every department it is, undeniably, of more frequent occurrence among men than among women. The statement of this fact has sometimes been regarded by women as a slur upon their sex; they have sought to explain it by lack of opportunity, education, etc. It does not appear that women have been equally anxious to find fallacies in the statement that idiocy is more common among men. Yet the two statements must be taken together. Genius is more common among men by virtue of the same general tendency by which idiocy is more common among men. The two facts are but two aspects of a larger zoölogical fact—the greater variability of the male."

Women will not complain of Mr. Ellis's conclusions:

"The hope of our future civilization lies in the development in equal freedom of both the masculine and feminine elements in life."

"A precise knowledge of the actual facts of the life of men and women forbids us to dogmatize rigidly concerning the respective spheres of men and women. . . . Only Nature can pronounce concerning the legitimacy of social modifications. The sentence may be sterility or death, but no other tribunal, no appeal to common sense, will serve instead."

"It is safer to trust to the conservatism of Nature than to the conservatism of Man. We are not at liberty to introduce any artificial sexual barrier into social concerns. The respective fitness of men and women for any kind of work or any kind of privilege can only be ascertained by actual open experiment; and as the conditions for such experiment are never twice the same, it can never be positively affirmed that anything has been settled once and for all. . . . An exaggerated anxiety lest natural law be overthrown is misplaced. The world is not so insecurely poised."

Primitive Music. By Richard Wallaschek. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. 336.

A Study of Omaha Indian Music. By Alice C. Fletcher and John C. Fillmore. Cambridge: Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology.

UNTIL quite recently it has been the custom of musical historians to begin their volumes with Greek and Hindu legends regarding the invention of music by the gods. But it was inevitable that the scientific spirit of the age should at last reach this department too, and increasing attention is now being paid to the lines of investigation suggested by Darwin, Spencer, Engel, and others. It remained for Mr. Wallaschek to collect into one volume the principal facts scattered in books of travel regarding primitive music. How thoroughly he has covered the ground may be seen from the list of authorities referred to, covering twenty-three pages in small type. For this carefully compiled list alone scientific students of the origin of music and musical æsthetics would be under immense obligations to him, even if his own contributions were of less value than they are.

The first five chapters are given up to extracts from the works of travellers and anthropologists, describing the music and the instruments of primitive peoples on the five continents. It must be confessed that the more one reads this sort of evidence, the more sceptical one feels as to its value in most cases. We know what a small proportion of us are able to judge of and describe even our own music, and how violently most of us disapprove of any novelty or deviation from familiar lines in melodic intervals. Bearing this in mind, it is easy to see why travellers should so often disagree in their estimates of the music of primitive peoples, and why we must accept their statements with great caution. An expert's opinion would here be worth more than the reports of a hundred explorers; and even experts are liable to be led into error by preconceived theories and inattention to important details. It will be long before this chaos can be reduced to order, but in the meantime we must thank Mr. Wallaschek for bringing together the material and offering many valuable suggestions.

As regards the origin of music, he discards

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both the impassioned-speech theory of Spencer and the bird-melody theory of Darwin, holding instead that the origin must be sought in a rhythmical impulse in man, arising from a general appetite for exercise of the organs. It has long been believed that rhythm is the first and oldest element of human music, and all the testimony collected by Mr. Wallaschek supports that belief. But while we may go with him so far, it is much less easy to accept his theory that harmony may be as old as melody. It may be true that Hottentots and New Zealanders have harmony in their music; but when we bear in mind how marvellously imitative some tribes are, we need to exercise extreme caution in accepting as original with them what they may have picked up from contact with Europeans. Mr. Wallaschek himself says, in speaking of the Hottentots: "It is worthy of note how quickly the natives learn songs and imitate those which they have heard from travellers. . . . Indian children, too, learn simple melodies in the Sunday-schools with the greatest ease."

Among other heterodoxies maintained by Mr. Wallaschek are the contention that the pentatonic is not the oldest of the scales; that there is no necessary connection between the minor mode and sadness, the major mode and cheerfulness; and that primitive vocal music does not always imply a poetic substratum, but often goes with meaningless words. While his argumentation is not always convincing, he shows at any rate that those questions are not as settled as they are usually supposed to be, and leaves the impression that probably many a literary battle will be fought over them in the future.

In the second work on our list, a brochure of 152 pages, we have, in part, the condition most desirable in investigations on primitive music, Prof. Fillmore being an expert in the theory of music, while Miss Fletcher, too, prepared herself for her part of the task by "ten years of constant study." She collected several hundred songs of the Omahas and other tribes of the same linguistic family, and submitted them to Prof. Fillmore for a scientific verdict. Here the conditions were obviously favorable for arriving at the truth, yet we fail to be convinced of the truth of Prof. Fillmore's inference, drawn from these songs, that the harmonic sense is universal, being shared by the Indians in a latent condition. No evidence is presented that the Indians used harmony of their own accord, but only that they accepted his harmonizations of their melodies, approving some in preference to others. His principal reliance was placed on Mr. Francis La Flesche, a (pure?) "Omaha Indian in the service of the Indian Bureau at Washington." This in itself is a suspicious circumstance, since Mr. La Flesche's harmonic sense may have been largely influenced by hearing our music, and the same is true of other Indians experimented upon, who have ceased to exist as a tribe and have long been under educational influences. While, therefore, it is interesting to hear that the Indians do take kindly to our harmonies (although we still have doubts on that point), we think that much more rigorous experiments would be needed to show that they have a "latent harmonic sense" except in the way in which a statue is latent in the marble. The Japanese have no harmony in their music, yet they soon learn to use and appreciate it; but we would not infer from this that our system of harmonies is "latent" in their melodies. The best authorities on Russian folk-song have protested against the harmonizing of Slavic folk-songs in our conventional way by which their exotic character is completely altered. How much more must this be true of Indian melodies. Prof. Fillmore has shown much skill and ingenuity in harmonizing ninety-two of these melodies (in the appendix), but it seems to us labor and ingenuity wasted. The result is more like Sunday-school songs than like wild Indian music.

Apart from this one point, there is a great deal to approve and admire in the joint work of Miss Fletcher and Prof. Fillmore. Of the interesting observations noted a few may be mentioned here: "Indian music seems to be out of tune to our ears conventionally trained to distinguish between the singing and the speaking tone of voice." "Baritone and mezzo-soprano are more common than the higher or lower classes of voices." Gradations of piano and forte are rarely attempted. "Words clearly enunciated in singing break the melody to the Indian ear and mar the music. They say of us that we 'talk a great deal as we sing.' Comparatively few Indian songs are supplied with words." This seems to us by far the strangest point observed by Miss Fletcher. Prof. Fillmore further notes that "major keys and major chords predominate in these songs, and that the Indian ear prefers a major chord, as a rule, at the close of a minor song." The rhythm is often so complicated that it is difficult to note it down. "I know of no greater rhythmic difficulties anywhere in our modern music than these Omahas have completely at command in their every-day music." The idea of vocal cultivation is entirely foreign to the Indian mind. Nor is beauty of tone to be thought of where the men sometimes sing loudly two hours at a time in the face of a strong wind and to the noise of big drum and rattles. On superficial acquaintance there seems to be more "sound and fury" than beauty in Indian music; but under proper circumstances Miss Fletcher was profoundly moved by it. Prof. Fillmore finally notes, as against the theory of Hanslick, that "these Omaha songs mean *feeling* to the Indian, in all cases."

Hans Sachs und seine Zeit. Von Rudolph Genée. Leipzig: J. J. Weber. 1894. Pp. 524.

Every one who is interested in German literature and in German music is looking forward to the great celebration of the four-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Hans Sachs, which is to be held next November in Nuremberg, and one of whose chief features will be the rendering of Wagner's "Meistersinger" by the foremost artists of Germany. The book before us is presented to the German people in the hope that it may arouse an interest in the great popular poet of a bygone age. The author does not pretend to make a contribution to the history of literature, but presents a picture of the culture of a well-defined and very important epoch, upon which Hans Sachs exerted a powerful influence. First he reproduces the Nuremberg of the sixteenth century, showing its relation to the Empire and the renown it had won for its art and industry, and especially for its group of mastersingers. Numerous illustrations of the buildings and fortifications and customs of the inhabitants, together with portraits of several eminent personages, are here introduced. Then begins the poet's biography proper, into which the author has woven some account of nearly everybody in whom Sachs was interested, and of nearly every event to which he turned his attention or about which he wrote. Any significant occurrence in Sachs's life is improved for a description of similar happenings in a general way. For example, when the author comes to speak of the poet's marriage, he describes briefly the bride, and then exhibits the marriage ceremony as conducted in the various classes of society, with the aid of some ten illustrations showing the dress worn by the brides and bridesmaids, according to their respective stations. In like manner, commenting on Sachs's poem, "Schembartlaufen," he shows that the occasion of it was the carnival of 1539, after which this particular amusement was abandoned. The origin of *Schembartlaufen*, its primitive political element, which had quite vanished at the time Sachs wrote; the way in which the contest was carried on, and the extravagant and fantastic costumes worn by the participants; the cause of its sudden end—are all passed in review. Sachs's numerous "Fastnachtspiele" lead to a good description of the rude stage and drama of his day.

An appendix contains several of the tunes to which the mastersongs were sung, the regulations of the Nuremberg Mastersingers, and several of Sachs's hitherto unpublished poems. The book, although popular in its nature, is prepared in a careful and scholarly manner, and cannot fail of its end. Tourists may well resort to it for information suitable for spectators of the coming celebration.

Reminiscences of the Great Mutiny of 1857-59, including the relief, siege, and capture of Lucknow, and the campaigns in Rohilcund and Oude. By William Forbes-Mitchell, late Sergeant Ninety-third Sutherland Highlanders. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

We shall never know half the truth about the struggle to throw off the British yoke in India, for we can hear only ex-parte testimony. In Bernard Quaritch's catalogue No. 114 there are 272 titles of works relating to India, but not one of them touching at all upon the Mutiny is by a native. Next to such a Hindu witness, though *proximus longo intervallo*, is a book from the British ranks. Hence we wish Sergt. Mitchell had written even sooner. He was under fire less than six months, his first fight being at Lucknow, November 14, 1857, and his last the next spring at Bareilly, May 6. A battle before the latter city, another before Cawnpore, with an assault on Lucknow for the rescue of beleaguered women and children, and the subsequent capture of the same place, were the chief military exploits.

It was ten days after the India outbreak before the sergeant's regiment started from Dover on May 20. They sailed for China, but at the Cape their destination was changed. Their arrival at Calcutta was on the equinoctial day, and in the rebel region not till a month later. After leaving the army the writer set up a rope factory in Calcutta, and appears to be an Anglo-Indian still. The charm of the volume, and it is great, lies in personal experiences and anecdotes. Though the author was no teetotaler, we learn from him that tea or coffee, in extreme cases reinforced by a pill of opium, proved ten times better as a tonic and restorative than extra grog. A round match-box of salt in his haversack turned tasteless forage for his mess into dainty dishes. Like the present writer in the same region, he felt on the self-same day the bitter change of fierce extremes. Many fell with sunstroke, and, the night after, he was too cold to sleep. One Bell of his regiment, the most powerful man in the British army, perished in an athletic *tour de force* through overrating his

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strength. One incident may encourage the rain-makers to bombard the heavens again when rain is needed. A very large quantity of powder which had been stored in a deep well accidentally exploded, and an immense cloud of black smoke was sent up in a vertical column at least a thousand yards high. This accident happened in cooking the mid-day meal. "It was followed in the afternoon by a most terrific thunder-storm and heavy rain which nearly washed away the camp" (p. 261). Mr. Mitchell is inclined to criticise British arms and tactics. British sword-blades were inferior in pattern to those of natives, as was evident in many hand-to-hand-encounters. Near battlefields, flies became multitudinous and roosted in the roofs of tents. "When the roofs were swept down, five basketfuls, each holding an imperial bushel, were carried out of a single tent."

In reading these Reminiscences the war of 1857 rises before us as a religious crusade. The Ninety-third Highlanders Mr. Mitchell declares to have been a Highland parish, minister and elders complete, with a regular service of communion plate, etc. (p. 52). Like Cromwell's Ironsides, they went into battle with the high praises of God in their mouths and two-edged swords in their hands. Their best fighter cried out from the 116th Psalm, Scotch version,

> "I'll pay my vows now to the Lord
> Before his people all,"

with every rifle shot or bayonet thrust. His victims were twenty. Not one life was spared. The Secundrabagh, the scene of slaughter, is to-day kept a ruin and is so to remain as its own monument. In what other war of recent times have no prisoners been taken? Giving no quarter was bad enough, but we read in these pages of far worse atrocities on the part of the British. Many English women and children were massacred in a prison and their blood dried on its floor (but Mitchell shows that they were not dishonored). The supposed murderers, whenever caught, were made to crouch in that slaughter-house and with their mouths lick clean each a square foot of that blood-soaked floor before being taken to the gallows. No torture was so horrible as this for Moslems, who view tasting blood as the worst of pollutions. The General who for four months enforced this blood-licking died soon, but his son was killed by a son of one of the defiled Moslems thirty years after. He had treasured up the wrong. The story of the spy Jamie Green we pity the man who can read without tearful eyes. The night before his execution he was put in charge of Sergeant Mitchell, and saved by him from being smeared, as was customary, with pig's fat to break his caste. His antecedents were beyond comparison more noteworthy than the career of Major André, as his rank and culture were higher. In the colleges at Bareilly and Roorkee he stood first; but as a cadet of the East India Company he was sent to serve under a sergeant of no education, who irritated and disgusted him by arrogance, insolence, and selfishness. Resigning, he was taken by the sovereign of Nepaul as his secretary during a visit to England. But let every one read this whole chapter.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austin, J. O. One Hundred and Sixty Allied Families. Providence, R. I.: John Osborne Austin. $10.
Baylor, Frances C. Claudia Hyde. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Björnson, B. A Gauntlet: Being the Norwegian Drama En Hanske. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Boothby, Guy. On the Wallaby: or, Through the East and Across Australia. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Bower, Prof. F. O. Practical Botany for Beginners. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Corning, Dr. J. L. Pain in its Neuropathological, Diagnostic, Medico-legal and Neuro-therapeutic Relations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.75.
Craddock, C. E. His Vanished Star. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Denney, Rev. James. The Second Epistle to the Corinthians. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Dodd, Anna B. In and Out of Three Normandy Inns. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Graves, C. E. The Wasps of Aristophanes. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Holt, Dr. L. E. The Care and Feeding of Children. Appletons. 50 cents.
Howell, Jennie M. A Common Mistake. The Merriam Co.
James, B. W. The Dawn of a New Era in America. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Jeans, J. S. Trusts, Pools, and Corners. London: Methuen & Co.
Lee, Margaret. Divorce; or, Faithful and Unfaithful. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Mead, Prof. W. E. Elementary Composition and Rhetoric. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 90 cents.
Merriam, Florence A. My Summer in a Mormon Village. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Mitchell, Walter. Two Strings to His Bow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Notovitch, Nicolas. The Unknown Life of Jesus Christ, from Buddhistic Records. G. W. Dillingham.
Ritchie, F. Exercises in Latin Prose Composition. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Sand, George. La Petite Fadette. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Scott, Sir W. Peveril of the Peak. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan Taylor & Co.
Taine, H. Derniers Essais de Critique et d'Histoire. Paris: Hachette; New York: Westermann.
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